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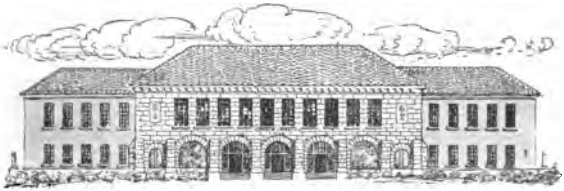

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University of the State of New York

28th University Convocation

OF THE

STATE OF NEW YORK

Held in the Senate Chamber in Albany, July 9-11, 1890

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28th University Convocation

OF THE

State of New York, July 9-11, 1890

MINUTES

Wednesday, 11 a. m.

The Convocation was called to order by Chancellor George William Curtis. Prayer was offered by Pres. A. B. Hervey of St Lawrence University.

Pres. J. M. Taylor of Vassar College, chairman of the Executive committee, presented a brief oral report of the work of the committee.

Paper: "The teaching of history in academies and colleges", by Prof. Lucy M. Salmon of Vassar College. Discussion was opened by Inspector Francis J. Cheney, followed by Pres. G. W. Samson of Rutgers Female College; Prin. Elisha Curtiss of Sodus Academy; Prin. H. P. Emerson of the Buffalo High School; Prin. J. G. Allen of Rochester Free Academy; ex-Prin. N. T. Clarke of Canandaigua.

Recess 12.35.

Wednesday, 3 p. m.

Brief oral reports of delegates from colleges in the state were given in order of the organization of the colleges. Pres. Seth Low reported for Columbia College; Prof. William Wells for Union University; a communication from Vice-Chancellor Henry M. McCracken for the University of the City of New York was read; Rev. Dr W. H. Maynard for Colgate University; Pres. A. B. Hervey for St Lawrence University; Warden R. B. Fairbairn for St Stephen's College; Pres. J. M. Taylor for Vassar College; Prof. Edward M. Fagan for Manhattan College; Prof. S. G. Williams for Cornell University; Pres. G. W. Samson for

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money whereby the board of regents may be enabled to engage permanently a sufficient number of examiners to expedite the return of said credentials. Carried.

Adjourned at 6 p. m.

Thursday 8 p. m.

Address on the "Study of the ancient classics," by President S. C. Bartlett, Dartmouth College.

Chancellor's reception in the library.

Friday 9.30 a. m.

Paper: "Are colleges requiring too much for admission?" by Prin. O. B. Rhodes, Adams Collegiate Institute.

Discussion opened by Prin. H. P. Emerson, Buffalo High School, followed by Warden R. B. Fairbairn, St Stephen's College; Prin. J. C. Norris, Canandaigua Academy; Prin. J. E. King, Fort Edward Collegiate Institute; Prin. A. C. Hill, Cook Academy; Prof. J. Scott Clark, Syracuse University; Prin. George M. Smith, Canton Union School; Prin. F. S. Capen, New Paltz Normal School; Rev. Dr W. H. Maynard, Colgate University; Prof. B. I. Wheeler, Cornell University; Prin. G. C. Sawyer, Utica Free Academy; Pres. J. M. Taylor, Vassar College (as a question of privilege).

Discussion: "The admission to college by certificate", opened by Prof. H. S. White, Cornell University, followed by Pres. W. J. Milne, N. Y. State Normal College; Prin. Charles F. Wheelock, Canajoharie Union School; Prin. Geo. M. Smith, Canton Union School.

At the close of the discussion Col. Weston Flint of the national Bureau of Education was called on and addressed the Convocation.

Dr King presented the following resolution: That the thanks of the Convocation are due the officers of the Convocation for the excellent accommodations provided by them for its members.

Chancellor Curtis appointed as committee on Necrology: Prin. O. D. Robinson, Albany High School; Prof. J. Scott Clark, Syracuse University; Prin. O. B. Rhodes, Adams Collegiate Institute.

The result of the ballot for the Examinations council was announced as follows: Prin. Henry P. Emerson, Buffalo High School; Prin. George C. Sawyer, Utica Free Academy; Prin.

D. C. Farr, Glens Falls Academy; Prin. Charles F. Wheelock, Canajoharie Union School; Prin. J. Carlton Norris, Canandaigua Academy.

Ex-Prin. George A. Bacon presented the following:

Whereas, The vote for the Convocation council will be entirely informal, *Resolved*, That the ballot be placed in the hands of the Chancellor with authority formally to name the council. Carried.

The Convocation council was subsequently announced as follows: Pres. D. J. Hill, Rochester University; Prof. B. I. Wheeler, Cornell University; Prin. C. T. R. Smith, Lansingburgh Academy; Prin. A. M. Wright, Waterville Union School; Pres. W. J. Milne, New York State Normal College.

The Chancellor declared the Convocation adjourned at 12 M.

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN ACADEMIES AND COLLEGES

PROF. LUCY M. SALMON, VASSAR COLLEGE

The old Greek legend representing the muse of history as of divine lineage and the eldest of her sisters rested on a philosophic as well as a poetic basis. With dim perceptions of the nature of a future life, men early sought it in the record of their earthly deeds, hoping thus to win immortality in spite of death.

History thus ministered to the individual and in the dim twilight of the race sang the wrath of Peleus' son and the fortunes of the exiled men of Troy. As the importance of the individual became merged in that of the nation, it was the jealousies of rival states and foreign conquests that employed her pen. Nations, like individuals, were of special interest to themselves, and their achievements in war and politics were recorded by admiring and servile chroniclers. Men saw in history only an attempt to rescue from oblivion national and individual deeds worthy of emulation or demanding universal condemnation. Until our own period, therefore, the muse of history has, with few exceptions, been an annalist looking from a lower window. Men and events have passed before her, but she has not cared whence they came or whither they went. But as modern chemistry is the outgrowth of medieval alchemy and astronomy of the astrology of a still more ancient

day, so modern history has been developed from these chronicles of a remote past. Clio no longer seeks alone to win enduring fame for her favored heroes, but she depicts the past that men may live more wisely in the present. As the muse of comparative history, she goes to the mountain top and makes the whole world hers by right of eminent domain.

Several influences have contributed to bring about this change, but the most important have come through the French Revolution. Those great intellectual movements that culminated in the overthrow of absolutism in France and the creation of new political ideals throughout western Europe gave to history a different conception of the relative position of potentates and peoples. The subject gained new dignity as it abandoned the homage previously paid to civil, military, and ecclesiastical rulers, and concerned itself more with the characteristics of nations. Voltaire anticipated Macaulay and Green by one hundred years when he wrote, "I wish to write a history, not of wars, but of society.... I want to know what were the steps by which men passed from barbarism to civilization." History has thus during the present century gained a new theme in the portrayal of those democratic tendencies of which its new purpose has been the result.

But not only did the French Revolution create a truer historical perspective within the different nations — it also widened the horizon of each. The armies of Napoleon and the allies that swept over Europe from the Spanish peninsula to the heart of Russia broke down the artificial barriers that had separated nation from nation. Provincialism was diminished, national interest was less self-centered, states for the first time became aware of the existence of institutions after which their own might profitably be modeled. The political, social, industrial and educational condition of nations became of more vital interest than the hours of dining and retiring of capricious sovereigns. The study of comparative history was born of the same destructive forces that overthrew the oldest and apparently most stable institutions of Europe.

While history has thus been indebted to political revolutions for new themes, it has also been indebted to changing intellectual standards for new methods of work. The early age had been one of credulity and adulation. But men came in time to see that "fables begin to be current in one generation, are established in

the second, become respectable in the third, while in the fourth, temples are raised in their honor." Skepticism and speculative thought followed in turn, and these have been superseded by a demand for the study of facts, not for their own sake, but to determine the laws that govern them. Science and scientific methods have become controlling intellectual forces, and history like every other subject, has come under this influence. As a result of this awakening, Voltaire in France, Niebuhr in Germany, and Arnold in England, gave the impulse to that form of historical writing which has made history pre-eminent in the world of letters in our own century. It has not been forgotten that there were immortal names in Greece and Rome and that the eighteenth century produced a Gibbon, but these are exceptions that show that the true historical spirit characterized the individual, not the age.

If history has thus been affected by the credulity of one period and the indiscriminating love of facts of another, now by speculative tendencies and again by scientific movements, is it not a chameleon unworthy of consideration among more stable subjects? The important place it has won for itself in the curricula of all our colleges and secondary schools must at this time be a sufficient answer to the question, but it is fitting to ask what are the dangers that at present beset the path of students and teachers of history.

The first danger is the failure to recognize the individuality of history. This is often due to a desire to acknowledge the indebtedness of history to science. Schools announce the employment in history of "laboratory methods," publishers advertise text-books in history constructed on the laboratory plan, and a recent catalogue of a large and important university proclaims that no text-book in history is used, but that one is being prepared by the professor and advanced students in the historical laboratory of the university. Historical laboratory indeed! Is the old word *library* to become obsolete and referred in the next edition of Webster to the heading laboratory? Must our study table give place to a more scientific article of furniture yet to be produced in some other historico-scientific workshop? The true student and teacher of history is ever foremost to confess his obligation to scientific methods, but he will never recognize in history a subdivision of physics or biology, or look forward to an historical

Newton who will reduce the events of the past to mathematical formulæ or physical laws.

A second phase of the same danger assumes the form of a desire to make history the vehicle for our philosophical conceptions of the past, present and future. This desire to know and to teach the philosophy of history is a reaction against that spirit which saw in the events of the past only an enumeration of facts, a skeleton without flesh and blood. This reaction has been inevitable and in a sense is not to be regretted, but it has brought its own attending dangers. A class of teachers by no means small in numbers or restricted in influence, whose knowledge of history and of philosophy is based on Hegel's "Philosophy of history," supplemented by a couple of lectures at the Concord School, is to-day instructing history classes in our high schools that the ultimate aim of the world is the mind's consciousness of its rational freedom. For the type of mind that has first grasped the idea that it is not all of history to teach Barnes' text-books *memoriter* from cover to cover, the transition is easy to the Hegelian conception that in Greece the mind was introspective; among the Romans the mind was resolved into generality, which makes mind itself universal; while in Christianity the mind first withdraws into pure introspection in communion with the universal; then follows the reconciliation, which is the introspective mind transforming the world. (Diesterweg's summary.) A disciple of this school, whose sublime indifference to the fact that the Norman Conquest came in the eleventh rather than in the first or the nineteenth century had been the despair of his instructor, when asked what material he would select for a class in history in the grammar grades, replied promptly, "I would teach them the philosophy of history." It is this spirit that teaches in our academies and high schools the philosophical, psychological and physiological aspects of the French Revolution, that discusses history, as has been said of Mr Carlyle's Frederick the Great, "in the past potential subjunctive," and all this without any sound, accurate knowledge of the facts on which the conclusions of others have been based.

A third danger comes in the adaptation of the fatalistic "whatever is, is right," into the fashionable "whatever is European, is right." This again is but the expression of a reaction against a too fervid patriotism which would have nothing of the effete mon-

archies of the old world; but special evils follow in its train. The college that employs laboratory methods and teaches the philosophy of history to freshmen glories in "original investigation" and the German seminary. He is of all men most deceived who dreams that the German *Seminarium* can be built up on anything but a German university basis. Doubtless the word seminary is often used with us to characterize a form of instruction affording special freedom of intercourse between professor and student, and in this sense its use is not objectionable, but the typical German seminary in an American college is an anomaly.

A fourth danger comes from another adaptation of the old saying into "whatever is new, is right." This again is a reaction against certain misconceptions of the subject-matter of history. Since Mr Green wrote his "Short history of the English people" in protest against the previous exclusive consideration of military and political affairs it has become the fashion to decry every history that does not treat of "the people." The protest has been well made, but there is danger that the teacher who welcomes emancipation from the drudgery that compelled the memorization of all the campaigns of the Revolutionary war will forget that

> "civlyzation doos git forrid
> Sometimes upon a powder cart."

There is a temptation to overlook the fact that we are conscious of our political constitution as of our physical body only when it is out of order and that the study of preventive politics, like preventive medicine, has a proper place. The fault of all early writers and teachers of history was not in the consideration, but in the exclusive consideration of military and political affairs. He errs in like degree who teaches that these phases of a nation's life can be ignored. He is wise who sees them in their proper relation to other phenomena of society.

These four dangers, the loss of the individuality of history in, first, the scientific tendencies, and second, the philosophical aspirations of the times, the attempted transplanting of foreign methods to American soil and the recent ignoring of certain vital portions of history, all grew out of the proneness in the human mind to seize half of a truth and remain content with it. We have learned in medicine, but alas! not yet in pedagogy, the fallacy of the argument that if a little of a thing is good, more must be better. Each of these methods of teaching history is half right,

but wholly wrong. A scientific method in its study we must have, but to treat history as an exact science is to degrade it from its own exalted position, since all imitation is demeaning. The relation of cause and effect every beginner in history must be able to see, but to introduce Hegel, Schlegel or Lotze into the classroom of the average academy or college is to caricature both history and philosophy. The German seminary is good — in Germany, and the adaptation of many of its methods may be good for us in so far as it teaches us to subordinate rhetoric to fact and to consult original documents. The history of peoples we must have, but of peoples concerned in war and politics as well as in literature and industries.

If we are to avoid these and similar dangers, we must clearly understand first, the general principles that should control all teaching of history, and second, the line of demarkation between history as taught in the secondary school, in the normal school, and in the college and university.

History, wherever taught, should ever keep in mind, as regards the choice of subject-matter, the practical end. Perhaps we come late in life to realize that history, like virtue, is its own reward, as we learn to appreciate Mr Lowell's definition of a university as a place where nothing useful can be learned. But the practical end must come first and lead up to it. This end must be the creation of an intelligent understanding of American history, American institutions, American ideals. This does not imply that we are to teach American history exclusively — far from it, but our national history is to be at once the beginning and the climax of all historical study. The necessity for this is the greater since we have but recently come to recognize the importance of historical study. Not until the civil war had made possible a true national life did we dare to bid defiance to sectional and local jealousies and study our own past. On the other hand, the study of European institutions was neglected, for the Monroe doctrine took root educationally as well as politically. When the centennial anniversary of our independence lessened our prejudices and removed somewhat our insular character, a new interest came in the study of European history and politics. We have thus come to realize that both American and European history must be taught in view of the large number of foreigners annually coming to our shores, the early age at which many

American boys and girls leave school, and the grave political problems yet unsettled and demanding the serious attention of every mature mind. Bishop Potter in his recent Phi Beta Kappa address on "The scholar and the state," has shown the necessity of keeping ever present, even in the higher paths of learning, the plain truths that history teaches if we are not to be wrecked on the shoals where other nations have gone down. From strange localities the encouragement comes to begin and to continue this work. On Rivington street, in the slums of New York, in a district from which comes one-tenth of the criminals of New York city, a college settlement has been established and in connection with it a free library. The librarian reports that the first demand of every boy is for a life of George Washington, and that when the biographies have been exhausted, the second choice is for a history that has "something about George Washington." If a recent magazine article on "Why an Irish boy should make a good American citizen," could teach not only our friends from the Emerald Isle, but immigrants from other nations as well, their duties as citizens of the Republic, and if Bishop Potter's address could be placed in the hands of every native American, the teaching of history would receive greater encouragement than has yet been vouchsafed to it.

If the practical end should be our objective point, three general principles should lead us to it.

The first step in beginning any historical work is to give a bird's-eye view of the whole subject. What Bunker Hill monument is to Boston, the Brooklyn bridge to New York and the Eiffel tower to Paris, that the general outline is in all historical study. One school of writers has often of late urged the theory that historical study should begin with local history, that the town and county should come first, the nation last. But this is much like attempting to draw a map of the United States by locating New York city, Chicago, San Francisco and Key West and then drawing the coast lines. It is the historical Cuvier, not the novice, who can take an isolated portion of local history and reconstruct from it an historical whole.

A second general principle is that in history, as well as in pure and applied science, the student must become familiar with the terminology employed. The words *state, constitution, law, pure democracy, representative government,* must be as clearly under-

stood as straight line and angle, base and salt. In this way much local history and many political principles can be, indeed must be, taught by way of illustration. "Taxation without representation" is a glittering generality, but it has meaning when the principles of taxation are understood and when it is evident why we never pay a direct tax without complaining and why some persons can look with equanimity upon the payment — by others — of an indirect tax of twenty per cent on foreign books.

A third general aim should be to train the student to do independent work. This can be done by putting into the hands of the students, even of high-school boys and girls, a certain amount of original material. The amount as well as the kind must vary with the nature of the school and the time given to the subject, but to pupils of even the lowest grade the Constitution of the United States must be something more than "what is in the back part of the book"; the Declaration of Independence must teach him why the colonies revolted, and his Iliad must show him the condition of society in the Homeric age. The best working outfit for every grade is a text-book containing a brief outline of facts, supplemented by original documents, selected with reference to the needs of special classes. Publishers are ever ready to meet such demands and have already given us the "Old South leaflets," the "National library," "English history from contemporaneous writers," and "Documents illustrating American history," while the instructor can find compensation for one of his trials in the large number of old English chronicles made available in the Bohn edition. Some persons indeed have cried out in alarm against the free use of original documents, even in our colleges, as an introduction of "university methods." Such criticism, however, is due to a failure to understand what is meant by university methods and to a lack of discrimination between *independent* work, which should be done everywhere, and *original* work which properly belongs to the university.

These general principles we believe should govern all historical teaching, but there are certain specific principles that must be applied to the teaching of history in special grades. We may lay down the general proposition that in the secondary schools the distinctive aim should be the accumulation of historical knowledge, in the normal school the classification of such knowledge, in the college independent investigation, and in the university

original investigation. This expresses, however, only the leading characteristic in each form of instruction, since in every grade must be found to a certain extent the distinguishing features of every other grade.

It has been said that in the secondary schools the distinctive aim should be the accumulation of historical knowledge. A German university professor was once asked the first step in historical study. His brief reply was "*Lesen.*" "And the second?" "*Viel lesen.*" "And the third?" "*Sehr viel lesen.*" The principle applies to work in the secondary schools. But here the instructor must be like the skillful engineer who constructs a tunnel by beginning at opposite sides of the mountain, knowing that the two ends of the tunnel will ultimately meet without the variation of a hair's breadth. At one end of the historical tunnel must be the reading, the much reading, the very much reading; at the other end, careful, systematic, dry, if you please, tedious drill. There must be the much reading, or the student early forms the pernicious habit of generalizing from one particular. There must be careful guidance to furnish a receptacle for this knowledge, or it is like water poured upon the ground. There must be general information, or the student becomes narrow; but general information alone is a jelly-fish, brilliant in coloring but formless and without use. In the secondary schools everything is grist that comes to the historical mill, but it is here also that the student must learn that "there is no northwest passage to the intellectual world."

The special province of the normal school is to emphasize the classification of historical knowledge. To the average normal-school student a fact is a fact. His knowledge is a Chinese painting, an historical crazy-quilt. He never sees that in history as well as in mathematics $2+2=4$. He has often much general information, especially concerning his own country, but it is an information and a zeal for information that leads him to ask "How many presidents have died in office?" "Who was president for a single day?" "Who fired the first gun in the Civil War?" "Who was the youngest soldier in the Revolution?" and to affirm in the same breath, "the reconcilation of the contradiction between its inner aim and life with its *actual* being is the *process* of the history of a nation. The collision between the *ideal* of a nation and the *actual* produces the process of history."

The normal-school student must first of all be taught historical perspective, and second, that there is no historical multiplication table or system of mechanical memorizing either of details or of general principles that can be applied to the solution of historical problems.

If the secondary school is to encourage the accumulation of historical knowledge, and the normal school the classification of historical facts, it is the college and the university that is to be the investigator of historical subjects. It is said that every lawyer owes a debt of gratitude to his profession, so the obligation rests upon every special teacher and student of history to contribute something to the sum of historical knowledge. This contribution cannot be made during a college course, but the college student must be an investigator for himself, the tools must be put into his hands and he must learn their use. Like the high-school boy he must be an omnivorous reader, but he must also be a critical reader. Hume and Freeman are to be to him not merely names of historians, but of historians representing different schools of thought. Macaulay's every school-boy knows that taxation without representation was the cause of the Revolution, but the college student must know, if the school-boy does not, why but one of the twenty-seven complaints in the Declaration of Independence refers to the subject of taxation. The college student must know that Magna Charta is the corner-stone of English liberty, not because Bishop Stubbs and all the historians say so, but because he has himself studied that great instrument and the subsequent development of constitutional liberty. The college student must learn the condition of the church before the Reformation, not from Fisher, Hausser, and Alzog, but from Chaucer, Dante, Sir Thomas More and Erasmus. He must know that history is not a simple substance, but a compound. He must be able to see that into it enter as component parts, politics, economics, statistics, finance, sociology, jurisprudence, archaeology, philanthropy, comparative philology, every subject that concerns itself with the life of the individual or the nation. He must be familiar not only with the process of analysis, but also with that of composition.

What results are we justified in thinking should follow our best efforts in secondary school and college?

In the first place, history can do more than any other subject, except science, to break down the barrier that too often rises

between the instructor's desk and the classroom seats. No subject except science lends itself so readily to cooperative methods of work. Professor and student, teacher and pupil are alike seekers after truth and the library door swings outward for all. If, as has been said, aristocratic politics broke down with the French Revolution and aristocratic economics are fast disappearing in the light of the economic discussions of the day, so aristocratic pedagogics must yield to that spirit which makes students of both instructor and instructed.

Again, history is preeminently adapted to teach the fact that knowledge is singular in fact as well as in form. To the ordinary mind, Greek is Greek, geology is geology, and history is history. Cæsar's "first impressions" of Britain, and Cicero's arraignment of Verres, which must have exhausted all the editions of the Roman *Herald* and *Evening post*, are to the average school-boy, not history, politics, and literature, but Latin. The average college student turns for his history, not to his Cæsar, but to Mommsen's chapter on the "Subjugation of the West," which in its narrative portion is but a paraphrase of the commentaries. Nothing is more difficult to overcome than this belief that each branch of knowledge is isolated. History, more than any other subject except literature, must show how every study in the school or college curriculum dovetails into every other study, making from seemingly isolated parts a compact whole. History must show that, while it itself works by scientific methods, science works by the historical method, that mathematics and music are first cousins, that art and philosophy are related and that the study of Sanscrit roots has made "the whole world akin."

These are but suggestions of what history can and should do. History does not wish to supersede any or all other subjects in the academic or the college curriculum. It asks only a fair place and reasonable treatment.

Discussion.

Inspector Francis J. Cheney.— The importance of the study of history to any who wish for symmetrical training can hardly be overestimated. The past is so intimately connected with the present, the experience of others may be such an aid to us in our own, that the person who consents to isolate himself entirely from either will usually find himself a failure. History contributes largely to the mental furnishing of every person of culture. In

the earliest use made of letters the writing of history was the first literary work undertaken. It has in all ages employed able pens and the names that stand high among the world's literary characters are those who have written the records of time.

Important as is this study, however, I think it may be maintained without successful contradiction that the teaching of it in our high schools and academies is not up to the level of the teaching of most other studies pursued in these schools. There seems to be no branch of study over which there is more dispute as to what shall be taught and how it shall be taught than history. A great variety of methods has been recommended, each claiming superiority over all others.

Just here I wish to say that I do not believe in the single method theory for any study. I do not believe in putting a strait jacket upon anybody engaged in the work of teaching. If you want to destroy the individuality of a teacher and take all the enthusiasm out of his teaching, just compel him to use a method to which he does not take kindly and, therefore, cannot use successfully.

There is an art of teaching founded upon certain well defined and generally accepted principles with which every teacher should be familiar; but I do not believe in that despotic power which lays down an intellectual railway for teachers' minds to run on and then insists that all teachers shall travel by that line. The methods to be used will depend upon several things: the age of the pupils, the character of the school, but mostly upon the teacher himself.

Why is it that the teaching of history is so unsatisfactorily done, especially in our own secondary schools? To this question several answers have been given.

1. The text-books used, where used at all, are generally dry compilations, very closely adhered to, and consequently very little interest is aroused on the part of the pupils.

2. Too little time is given to its instruction. Especially is this the case with American history which is crowded into the limits of a single term or two, or at most a year.

3. Teachers of history generally give instruction in other branches that have not the remotest connection with this subject. Some one has said "The mind of the teacher of history must be kept saturated with its spirit, stored with copious illustrations of

its varied lessons by wide and diligent reading, or history can not be taught effectually to the young." Certainly this requirement can not be met when a teacher of history has to dissipate his energies and spend his time in preparing instruction in several unrelated branches.

4. Usually not enough care is exercised in selecting a teacher of history. The idea is too prevalent that anybody can teach it. I fully agree, however, with Dr Stanley Hall that "the high educational value of history is too great to be left to teachers who merely hear recitations, keeping the finger on the place in the text-book and only asking the questions conveniently printed for them in the margin." The teacher of history should be a broad, accurate scholar in his department knowing where he can find the original records, if necessary, and knowing how to consult them. In the present want of proper text-books and the mass of ill-assorted material at hand, if the teacher does not supply accurate and detailed information the pupil will not get it. He should be a person of judicial mind, able to weigh and sift evidence, non-partisan in spirit, and able to draw proper conclusions from well established premises.

It has been maintained that history is an exact science, and therefore all the teacher has to do is to find out its facts and principles and present them to his class. The great names of Buckle, Comte and Spencer are quoted as maintaining this proposition. I am one of those who believe that it is not, can never be such, and shall try to give you a reason for the faith that is in me. Science is not only the investigation of truth for the sake of exact knowledge, but it is that exact knowledge itself ascertained. The scientist, recognizing that the changeless law of cause and effect regulates all life, from this general principle formulates other laws and replaces theory by definite knowledge and thus develops an exact science. It is evident that the more closely the facts adhere to the material, the easier it will be to classify them; but, as we advance into the immaterial, new factors present themselves which not being readily understood produce uncertainty. It is not so difficult to discover and classify the facts underlying the physical sciences, but when we come to those of the immaterial world the case is different — there are so many elements that are not and can not be known that laws can not be accurately formulated. History belongs to this class.

The first element of uncertainty which I noticé is that of *individuality*—an important factor in the making of history. The movements of men as a class, as well as man as an individual, have always been dependent. The outcome of the deed you perform to-day will depend upon what the other fellow is going to do. If you knew just what that would be you would then be able to shape your own course with certainty, but inasmuch as you do not, you have to proceed upon the probabilities of a guess; you may guess right, but sometimes you guess wrong.

In 1815 Bonaparte had allied forty millions of people on the continent against fifteen millions in England. At Boulogne he had mustered the entire allied army and was waiting for his transports to convey him across the channel. "O, for six hours control of this channel" said he "and we are the conquerors of the world." But that six hours control which would have changed the history of Europe depended upon Lord Nelson's movements.

It was supposed that he had been lured away to the West Indies beyond the possibility of recall before Napoleon should land an army of 100,000 hardy veterans upon the well-nigh defenseless coast of England. But the celerity of Lord Nelson's movements was an element of uncertainty which defeated Napoleon's plans, for he overtook the enemies' fleet at Trafalgar where England expected every man would do his duty and found that every man did it so well that she was saved from ruin.

Suppose that the bullet which lodged in the snuff-box of Frederic the Great had been deflected a little to the right or left, who doubts but that the brilliant history of Prussia around which German unity has centered would have been entirely changed?

Had the faithless Indian who snapped his piece at Washington while returning from that important mission undertaken in his early years, been successful in his attempt, how different might have been the subsequent history of the colonies!

These instances might be multiplied, which although trifling in themselves have changed, in their final effects, the political status of a continent.

That the events supposed in the instances mentioned were more likely to happen upon any scientific theory of probabilities than those that did happen, no one can deny, and it cannot be affirmed that the result in any case could have been foretold with any degree of certainty.

Another consideration which prevents history from being classed among the exact sciences is the untrustworthiness as well as the scarcity of historical evidence. Very often those who have had to do with the making of history have had sole charge of the records; and those records which they desired not to have preserved, they have not scrupled to destroy.

Take for instance the history of England before the revolution of 1640. There was no real responsibility on the part of government officials. Popular opinion had no real effect upon the administration of government. Indeed there was no popular opinion. Those in authority had charge of the archives, and the government, irresponsible, was interested in concealing its motives and movements, and so whatever evidence was hurtful was destroyed and doubtless much that was preserved was so made up as not to disclose, but conceal the truth. Not until quite recently was much known concerning the reign of James I. But a bundle of papers has been recently found in its hiding place in Edinburgh which was evidently intended for destruction; for at the close of one of them was this injunction to the notorious Buckingham, it is said, "I pray you burn these papers." They were, however, in some way preserved, "and the information given by them," says an eminent historical critic, "entirely changed the ideas previously held with regard to the reign of the first of the Stuarts."

Even the records of the courts are not to be relied upon; for they seemed to have been instituted for the purpose of carrying out the will of the government and not for the purpose of administering justice. The judges depending for their appointment upon the king were his tools and, while there was a form of trial by jury, if a juryman dared to give a verdict in accord with evidence and not with the wishes of the king he was fined in a heavy sum or sent to the tower.

Another reason in defense of the proposition that history is not an exact science which I urge, is this: because of the varying passions, prejudices and judgments influencing historical writers, the conclusions arrived at can never be uniform. One writer pictures Cranmer as the archbishop who rose to power by being a party to the numerous divorces of one of the most sensual brutes that ever disgraced a throne; who attached himself to individuals while the fortunes of these individuals remained but voted to cut off their heads as soon as the tide of royal favor turned

who, while Henry VIII lived, assisted in burning people who denied the doctrine of transubstantiation, and after Henry's death found out the doctrine was false; who as a churchman, in violation of canon law, signed the death warrant of Somerset's brother to serve Somerset and then assisted the destroyer of Somerset in his efforts to change the succession.

Another writer presents him to us as the holy prelate who helped to put protestant religion upon a firm basis; who was the author of a prayer book whose reverent words and holy sentiments to this day are the echo of devoutest hearts; who never made but one mistake and of that he repented and at last died a martyr to his convictions.

No one denies the genius of Sir Francis Bacon. But let one historian turn our historical kaleidoscope for us, and we see him to be a fawning courtier who subordinated his great powers to the most detestable purposes. He allowed his ambition to get the better of his gratitude and, for the sake of his influence at court, turned his back upon his best friend and benefactor and was instrumental in sending him first to the tower and then to the block and, to crown all, at the demand of his queen he consented to blacken the memory of that friend after he was in his grave.

He allowed his greed to get the better of his honesty and so received heavy bribes in return for corrupt decisions as Chancellor. To retain his favor with James I he enslaved his royal intellect and became the servile tool of Buckingham, the most contemptible favorite that ever flattered a king. But let another turn our kaleidoscope in his way, and we are at once so overwhelmed with Bacon's genius that we see nothing but good in everything he did as well as everything he wrote. Whatever he did to retain his place at court he was justified in doing, that the country might have the benefit of his great services. The money he received was not a bribe to influence his legal decisions, but a gift from those who admired his intellectual powers. As a man he was not only one of the most profound thinkers of any time but one of the most honest, useful and disinterested public servants of whom we have any record.

Take more recent instance — that of Fitz John Porter. Here was a man brought before a court-martial under the grave charge of disobedience to orders in the face of the enemy. The evidence

pro and con was taken and after a patient and impartial hearing the court, composed of his brother officers, judged him guilty of the offense and his name was stricken from the rolls of the army. But it seems to be a case that will not remain settled. Distinguished military men differ with regard to the justice of that sentence, and some who indorsed the verdict of the court, upon a reinvestigation of the case changed their minds and pronounced the sentence unjust — a remarkable example of the different conclusions to which men will arrive from investigating, apparently, the same facts.

The causes and results of the late civil war we, here at the North, think are clearly defined; but one gets a very different idea of these causes and results by a perusal of Alexander Stevens' "War between the states" from what he does by reading Greeley's "American conflict."

"History," says Macaulay "is under the jurisdiction of two hostile powers reason and imagination. Instead of being equally shared by its two rulers it falls alternately under the dominion of each and, therefore, it is sometimes fiction and sometimes theory", and we will not deny that it is sometimes fact. In view of these facts it cannot be denied that too much care can not be taken in selecting the teachers of this important branch in our secondary schools and colleges. If a teacher of history does not possess these qualifications which I have mentioned before in this paper; viz., a judicial mind, an analytical judgment and non-partisan spirit, he will be very likely to find that other people with positive convictions and with equally clear knowledge and good ground interpret history differently from himself, as has been demonstrated in our own country within recent time.

If it be true that "history is philosophy teaching by example" and that, as has been maintained, "the school of example is the world; and the masters of this school are history and experience", it will not be difficult for us to perceive the advantages of history over experience as a teacher. Experience teaches us a practical wisdom through the changes and trials of life which come to us personally. Coleridge says that "to most men experience is like stern lights of a ship, which illumine only the track it has passed." History is generally understood to mean a knowledge of the progress of nations and institutions with a philosophic inquiry into effects and causes.

There is no condition or phase of life in which history may not be a help. It is of service to the man in private life; to him who stands in legislative halls to make our laws; to him who stands behind the sacred desk to interpret important facts; and to him who sits at the editor's table indicting lessons that reach a larger public. By means of it we live in former ages, we converse with the men who have been before us, and travel in countries we never saw. By means of it we may acquire, in a limited time, a knowledge of the centuries and a wider range of experience than the patriarchs of old.

To train the young people of America to become intelligent, patriotic and moral citizens is the great function of our schools and to the consummation of this nothing will more largely contribute than a careful and diligent study of history, not only of the United States but also of those peoples across the seas with which we, in so many ways, are intimately connected. Every thoughtful person will notice with great satisfaction the increasing interest that is taken in the subject of history, and may we not indulge the hope that the instruction in this subject will in the future be more nearly of a character which its importance demands?

Pres. G. W. Samson.— I listened with special pleasure to the paper that was read by the professor of history at Vassar from the double fact that it was addressed to young ladies and by a teacher in history, herself a lady of culture; which I have no doubt somewhat modifies the idea. But I was greatly interested in its general analysis. I have no time to call attention to but one or two points of the many to which I should like to refer. I am assured of the importance of the general idea, that we must bring history into all our studies, even into the mathematics; whose teaching has been a life-work for over 50 years. During the war it was mine to take up the whole range, since professor after professor went into the army. It is a question how much of its range, astronomical, mechanical, and tactical, so different in technical schools, at West Point, and at the astronomical observatory — can be mastered. In philosophy Comte was right in making the method of pure mathematics fundamental.

As just stated, we must have connected with our idea of the exact sciences in their theory, the principle of history. I am assured, Mr Chancellor, that the whole world, when now nations so interlock, has

to eliminate some things called history. You know what occurred in this state with the text-books of history. It ought not to have occurred, and it need not. I have been reviewing the last few weeks, preparing a special paper, the manner in which the French system of education was harmonized by Guizot. This appears in three particulars; *first*, history; *second*, religion; *third*, philosophy. In such a country as France where there have been 10 radical political revolutions within the last century, who does not see how important it is not to offend the prejudices of any party. Otherwise you will have your country needlessly rent by perpetual strife. Is there not here a lesson for us, Mr Chancellor? All teachers feel it in relation to our political relations. Why keep up the alienations of the past, especially while there is now before the country so palpable an illustration of the fact that we have to admit the doctrine of "state rights." Let us meet as brothers in the school; training our children, yes our youth, to keep down those old antagonisms of race, of section, of religion which may after all be misconstructions, and yet are so perpetuated. Why not guard this in religious history? I do not know who the Chancellor's ancestors were, but I know that some of my own ancestors, nigh Cambridge, were considerably compromised in religious history. I would not like to have the story told to my children; I will never tell it. Our instruction in history, to be successful, must be scientific; and science is historical. Why not drop out discordant statements as to human imperfections of the ablest and best men; as we do in chemistry; eliminating what is no longer of any account, as we do in mathematics. I admire the paper; assured that it is of vital importance that we do not bring into collegiate, least of all not into public school education what belongs to specialists alone in the university study of history. We may go into all these details and analyze them thoroughly in the university, since the judgment may there be comprehensive; but they should never enter the secondary schools. Keep grand ideals there prominent. The finest history we have of our country's real progress and of Washington's grand career is found in the introduction by Guizot to the French edition of the "Life and writings of Washington." I think that it is Johnson's encyclopedia which alludes to this; but read in the original, Mr Chancellor, it is magnificent. Why can not we teach the history of other nations as Guizot teaches the history of our nation?

Let us catch the spirit; then history will be worth something, and I think the paper we have just heard guides us on to the true analysis of what our school histories should incorporate.

Prin. Elisha Curtiss.—I can say truthfully that I listened to the paper, and to the remarks with interest. Teachers of history must differ in some respects. In the secondary schools I believe it to be impossible to go through all this original work and know from individual research the truth of history, nor is it desirable.

The teacher should know the best text-books and from one or two first-class authors let the pupils learn what has been important in the annals of time. This original research sounds well, but smacks of pedantry. Teachers generally are not historians. They have not had that wide research, and must take for granted what they find in the text-books. It is well that they should, for from limited information they would reach wrong conclusions. Judged from different standpoints the same facts are told by interested parties in different ways.

The reporters of modern days living amid the events impart something real of current events: still how little they know of the motives which actuated the actors, and the causes which brought about the results.

We can say of some act, like the treason of Benedict Arnold, that treason is always contemptible: but how few to-day except the scholars know just the causes that actuated Benedict Arnold to do what he did.

And so far as this original work is concerned, that an ordinary pupil from 10 to 15 years is expected to perform, the benefit derived is purely imaginary. I agree that the pupil should read understandingly. He should know in what treason consists, and the peculiarities of a monarchy, or republic. Regents sometimes in their questions require original conclusions from pupils. They ask the question, "Do you prefer a republican form of government, or a monarchical government? and why? Usually the answer is, I prefer a republican form of government, because I live in one. The cause of his preference is plain to him. Ask an ordinary student in history, if he understands the causes that make a monarchy strong or desirable, and few can answer correctly. The boy is a democrat because his father is a democrat. A methodist, because his parents are methodists. This is as far as he has looked it up. It is as it should be. It

shows respect, filial confidence, and like faith and confidence should be in the secondary school. In the university, in the college, they have age and judgment; they can give time to original research, can analyze different reports, and judge from cause to effect.

I take it for granted that history can never be taught as science or mathematics. The gift of prophecy is not confined to teachers. Few can predict with unerring certainty the future. We see now in part. We see distinguished persons arrayed on one side of a discussion, and a year after we see the same persons ranged on the other side of the same discussion. New feelings, new light, new truths have developed to their mind, and they act accordingly. History should be studied to know the past; but from knowing the past, we cannot always foretell the future. We know certain causes have produced certain results, and we rightly infer, that causes which have produced deleterious results should be avoided.

The ordinary student will not be improved very much by reading the text-book through, and answering the questions at the bottom of the page. But let the pupil take a few facts in history, become familiar with their history, and then from these let him generalize. Take taxation without representation, which appears as the sole cause of the revolution. But there were other causes just as potent, but this was the one most charming to hear at that time.

Taxation without representation has always existed. It is in our government at present and probably always will exist. That which is generally proclaimed in history as the cause is seldom the cause, but simply one of the many causes. And so those who write history or compile school history write the prejudices and impulses of the people of their times.

There may be critical scholars, who can see clearly historical truths; but the students will never be better informed than the history they read. And so they take for granted what they see in the papers. As they take for granted what they read in history without knowing anything except what is on the printed pages. A little while ago I looked through Anderson's History to select 10 of the most important battles of our civil war. Confirmed in my own mind I wrote to a distinguished army officer asking him to name the 10 battles he considered most important. He mentioned the battle of Cold Harbor and I told him it was not

mentioned in this history. "Well," he said, "that is the way the civilian or historian looks at battles. Those we soldiers consider important, they may not consider at all important."

If historians of acknowledged ability err so greatly in facts of history, how much more should we distrust the original research of students and teachers. It is vastly better to consult the regents' reports and learn what history is most used, adopt it, study it, and let the teacher as best he can explain.

Prin. Henry P. Emerson.— It has always seemed to me rather wonderful that there should be such a difference of opinion as to the importance of the study of history. I remember that Herbert Spencer in his work on education makes a furious attack upon the study of history: and as if he were afraid there would be any doubt as to his attitude on the question, he returns to it again and again and insists it has no usefulness whatever so far as preparing a young man for what he calls more perfect living. Now, we ought to be rather modest it seems to me, in our expectations of what we may accomplish in secondary and lower schools in the matter of history. It is not so much to teach them in general the theory of history, as it is to inculcate a moral sense in the pupils that will help them to be better citizens when they grow up. I believe there is no higher function for the secondary schools, or indeed for any school for that matter, than to inculcate in the young a broad and generous public spirit, so that when they grow up to be men and women they will be interested not in their own petty affairs simply, but interested in all that pertains to the general good. And I believe that the study of history has a decided tendency to teach the young that there are moral aims in the world, that there are moral aims in the events of history, and so they are led to feel that they are helping to shape the future of the human race. History can be so taught as to inculcate in the young the true philanthropic spirit. Now, in the city where I have worked for the past 16 years, where one-half the population almost is foreign, one-half the school population descendants of the immigrants who come to this country from Ireland and Germany, there is nothing of greater weight in education than putting the study of American history into the hands of those who know how to get hold of the moral sense of the pupils: to build them up not only intellectually, but in their moral nature. What

abundant opportunities there are for teaching in this way in American history! How many lessons can be taught that will cleave to the pupil for life. One of the points that Herbert Spencer makes is, that these dry details of history can not possibly have any effect upon a man's life. I believe that most of us here know better. I believe that the reading, when a boy, of the Persian invasions of Greece — of the army of the Greeks driving back those Asiatic hordes — made me a more patriotic man. I believe history can be taught to our young, many of whom come from foreign homes, knowing little of the real genius of American institutions, I believe it can be so taught to them as visibly to uplift them in their usefulness as citizens afterwards.

Now, in teaching American history, I insist upon its being done something in this way: We often hear it said, we should look to the continuity of events, and not to the mere dates and the details. From the discovery of America up to the close of the French and Indian war, there is one question that ought to be kept before the minds of the young, and that is, what people, what language is to dominate America. Here we read of the English explorations, of the Spanish discoveries, of the French colonization in Canada. Pupils must keep the one question in their minds — which of these nations is ultimately to possess America, the English, the Spanish, or the French? That was settled in the conquest of Quebec. After English domination in America is established there looms up another question — are these English colonies to be dependencies of England, or independent states? All the preliminaries and incidents of the Revolutionary war are centered around that question. After that is settled, then what comes up? The question is shall these states be separate, independent powers, or one nation? The life of this people under the articles of confederation; the long agitation that led to the adoption of the Constitution; the agitation over the slavery question, and the doctrine of state rights and centralization lead to and are settled by the civil war. All these epochs have a most vital interest when made to center around these questions, and young people can be made to feel their importance, if the teacher goes to work about it in a rational way.

The value of reading can not be overestimated, it seems to me, in this work, even with young people. We have all the books we can get that have a bearing upon American history, brought into

the room and kept there during the term, and for fear the pupil will not read the books, the teacher points out particular chapters bearing on the topic in hand, and thus the work is broken up, diversified, by getting another author's view of it. If this course be not pursued, we are not sure the pupil gets hold of the real spirit. I know an instance of a teacher who had been faithful in teaching American history, and in her weekly review of the subject which she usually held and for which the answers had to be written down, she asked one of her pupils to give some account of the nullification troubles in South Carolina. This is what the girl answered: "The question that arose in reference to that was whether South Carolina should be null or void. Some wanted it null, and others void." That is a specimen of the way history is sometimes learned by rote. It should be taught with regard to getting at the real meaning and the sense of what is studied. A thorough reading of biographies is excellent. Take those of American statesmen. I would rather a scholar would read thoroughly the life of Jefferson, read it understandingly, just as he would a story,— it would do more for that boy and fit him better for reading and being interested in public affairs after he left school than to recite from text-books for a year.

Prin. John G. Allen.—What I have to say on this subject has reference to the importance of American history as compared with English grammar. That seems to be the trend of thought in this discussion. There are many pupils in the *grammar* schools that can parse words perfectly, but they have little knowledge of the events in the history of their own country. It seems to many teachers and boards of education that if grammar be taught thoroughly (I don't mean the English language) and so taught that pupils will be able to analyze sentences perfectly, and parse any number of words without making a single mistake, the highest functions of the public schools are performed. It matters little whether such pupils have been instructed in the fundamental principles of the government and the history of the United States or not, their education is deemed *finished*. I would refer you to some remarks, on this subject, made by our honored President Garfield. He regarded the teaching of American history as incomparably more important than the teaching of grammar, or arithmetic, or any other of those subjects on which so much stress is laid in the grammar schools. It seems to me that if the board of regents

should add American history to the five subjects requisite to securing a preliminary certificate, an advance step would be taken toward preparing the boys and girls in the public schools for citizenship.

Ex-Prin: N. T. Clarke, *Canandaigua.*— I was once talking with a lady in Chicago whose father was the president of the board of trade in that city. In reference to some event of recent occurrence there, on asking her when it took place, she after a little hesitation said — "wait one moment and I will tell you". Her father had not long before suffered the loss of a large sum of money through a "wheat corner" and half of Chicago lay in the ruins of its great fire. The lady soon replied "we refer every thing in our family history to those two events — the wheat corner or to the great fire — and I am not sure about the date of any event unless I refer it to one of these events."

Now I have studied history pretty faithfully for the last 50 years and taught it almost as long — but it was not till I had got nearly through teaching that I became convinced of a good method to be pursued especially in our secondary schools. It seems to me, that above all questions relating to the moral sense, and the knowledge of human nature the first thing to be done is to put the student in possession of the leading facts in their order. Give the student the chronological order of events. There are prominent events connected with the discovery of the country, with the occupation of the country, with the organization and with the religion of the country — with the early history — the colonial history; the early wars: such as King William's, Queen Anne's, King George's and the French and Indian wars. Each of them give a central point to start from and about their centers the details of the history may be arranged. In Bible History no little help is gained by the student by even so little an analysis as this. Divide the Old Testament history in the middle and you strike Abraham — divide the first half and you strike Enoch; the second half and you strike Solomon's temple; divide the last quarter and you strike the second temple. Now with these five facts before the student he would have no trouble in locating pretty accurately the Babylonish captivity, for the apostacy of the 10 tribes was after Solomon and the second temple was built by the returned captives from Babylon.

So in English history — there was a great Norman conquest — a great central fact — the signing of Magna Charta by the miserable

King John — the conquest of Scotland by Edward I,— the establishment of the Tudor House — and the closing of that house by the splendid reign of good Queen Bess. These and like events make the great points of reference from which the threads of the history can be intelligently drawn out. I do not wish to say aught against teaching the stories of history, but I am satisfied that the teachers' fine work is to make the frame on which the stories are to be hung — that the building must be first erected before the adornments of furnishing can be put on.

COLLEGES OF NEW YORK

Brief oral reports of progress

COLUMBIA COLLEGE

Pres. Seth Low.— It gives me great pleasure to represent the oldest college in the state, in this council of the educational institutions of the state. I came quite unprepared to make any formal report, but I understood that it might be of interest to the Convocation to be told in a general way what had been done at Columbia during the past year. You all know that the college did me the great honor to elect me president at a meeting of the trustees in October last, and I assumed the duties of my office at the beginning of the second term, the first week in February. Since that time a great many important things have been done at Columbia, which are in the way of preparation, we hope, for better work in the future. I can not say, sir, that the effect of the action taken is precisely that which followed the organization of these colonies into the Federal union, and yet the result is not dissimilar.

Columbia College, as this assemblage has just heard, received its charter in 1754, and from that date it has done the work of a college proper; it is doing that work now in what we call the school of arts. But like everything else that is sound and healthy in this great union, it has grown and developed with time. One school after another has been established by it. The medical school which it founded in 1757, was the first medical school in the state of New York. It is an interesting illustration, I think, of the value that Columbia has been to the city where she is located, that the address delivered at the first commencement in which the medical faculty took part, led immediately to the

formation of the New York hospital, the oldest hospital in that city. As you know, sir, the work of the college and of its medical school was interrupted by the Revolutionary war, but soon after that struggle was over, the work of both the school of arts and the medical school was resumed. The medical school of Columbia was absorbed in 1813, by mutual consent, by the College of Physicians and Surgeons, and from that time until 1860, the two institutions lived apart. Meanwhile, in 1858, the college had established a law school, which has been in continuous existence since then under the charge of the same distinguished gentleman, Dr Theodore W. Dwight. The law school to-day is the oldest school in uninterrupted history of any associated with the college proper. Next in order is the medical school, the College of Physicians and Surgeons, which, although under its own board of trustees and providing its own funds, is by joint resolution the medical school of Columbia college, having become so as I have said in 1860. Thus the rupture which was made by consent in 1813 between the medical department and the college, was brought to an end in this new union between Columbia and the College of Physicians and Surgeons in 1860. In 1864, the school of mines was established by Columbia. As its name would imply, it began simply as a school for giving instruction to mining engineers; but it has developed until now there are six distinct courses in the school, and two post graduate courses, so called, though rather illogically, I think; and the whole ground of applied science is there pretty well covered. In 1880, the college produced still another school—the school of political science; and this last year we have added the newest school of all—the school of philosophy.

When I came to the college in February last, I found all these associated schools except the College of Physicians and Surgeons living together on the same block, governed by the same trustees, and in name and in fact a part of one institution, but each working as if the others scarcely existed. It was even said there were men upon the block, teaching in their respective schools, who had been there for 20 years, and who did not know one another personally. As the result of that situation it had been the custom and practice in the college for the students to matriculate in the special school in which they proposed to study. If for instance the student matriculated in the school of law and wished to take some studies under the faculty of arts, he must matriculate again in the school

of arts, and pay another matriculation fee. The tendency of this system was to break the college up into fragments. So the first thing which was attempted, and which happily succeeded this spring, was to organize the fragments into a single institution.

That was done in this way. In the first place we provided that every student hereafter should matriculate as a student of Columbia, and register as studying under this or that faculty. The privilege was also given to him to study under any faculty, or any combination of faculties, which the regulations of the institution might allow. That, you will perceive, was a great step towards unification. The next thing we tried to accomplish, and again happily succeeded in accomplishing, was to secure an educational body which would be accepted as thoroughly representative on the part of all the different schools which made up the institution. Such a body was needed in order that we might look at educational questions from the point of view of the whole, as well as from the point of view of each different school. At the time of my election the trustees had already considered this question, so far as to determine upon the establishment of a university council, but they had left the character of that council and its powers as matter for subsequent determination. The problem which the college had to face was not unlike that which the colonies had to face in forming the Federal union. In that endeavor, as you know, one of the great questions was to harmonize successfully the claims of the large and the small states. So, in our reorganization, one difficulty we had to contend with was to harmonize the claims of the large and small faculties, without organizing upon false principles. We believe, sir, that pedagogically speaking, there is a distinct and fundamental difference between a college and a university. Columbia has been a college from the day of its foundation. We believe that to-day she is both a college and a university, but we wanted to make the distinction pedagogically as clear as possible in our reorganization.

The first step towards that result was to create a school of philosophy, which drew together in one faculty all the gentlemen upon the college block, all of whom by the way had been instructors in the school of arts, who were giving instruction in philosophy, philology and letters. That having been done we found ourselves with four university faculties, as we can say: the faculty of law, the faculty of the school of mines, or of pure and applied

science and mathematics, the faculty of political science, and the faculty of philosophy; and we have in close connection with us, though not under the control of our trustees, the faculty of medicine. We determined to form a university council on the basis of representation of these university faculties, because there is no professor in the institution who sits in more than one of these faculties; whereas, under the old system, the men of science for example gave instruction both in the college proper and in the school of mines and had seats in the faculty of both schools. The consequence of this situation was that when the trustees applied to the faculties for information upon any point, in many instances the same gentlemen had an opportunity of expressing views in two different places, in one instance in three different places. Therefore it becomes essential that this central body should be representative of all the men upon the block who gave instruction, but that no one should have the opportunity of voting for representation more than once. Now, in these university faculties the division among the men having been made by the studies which they teach, naturally no one professor sits in more than one university faculty. At the same time some of these faculties were large, and some were small, so that it seemed to me that if we admitted the principle of proportionate representation, just as that principle would appear to be, we were inviting great trouble for the future. Because, if representation in the university council was to be proportionate, we immediately made it the interest of all the other faculties to protest against the growth of any faculty. Therefore, in order to leave the future free for growth in all directions, unhampered and unhindered, it became necessary that each university faculty should have equal representation in the council. When that had been provided for, we found we had yet to meet the personal equation; that is to say, the small faculties, by reason of their size, had double the representation of the large ones. This difficulty was in part overcome by giving to the school of arts, which is the college proper, an ex-officio representation of two members, the dean and the secretary of the faculty; so that the school of arts, which is the parent school of all, but not the faculty of arts as such, is represented in the university council. There still remained a part of the personal equation to be dealt with, and it was suggested that the President should select two other members

of the council from any faculty upon the college block so as to secure in the council a just proportionate representation of the different subjects taught in the institution. Under the provisions of this scheme, we now have a university council upon which there are four men of letters, four men of science and four men representing law and political science, and I am happy to say that the composition of the council, both theoretically and practically, has been accepted upon the college block as satisfactory, with entire unanimity. The result is, that we have now at Columbia for the first time a body accepted by all the teachers upon the college block, more than 100 men in number, as thoroughly representative, in which we can discuss every educational question that presents itself in any part of the institution. I think, that in the discussions which led to this result the faculties of the different schools of which the college is composed, met for the first time in the history of Columbia, to discuss together an educational question.

The educational effect of these discussions was excellent upon the members of all the faculties. They became acquainted with one another, and they found that, in many instances, where they had supposed that they held different views, the difference arose from difference in expression, rather than from difference in fact. So that now, if we discuss, as I suppose we shall, in the near future, the curriculum in the school of arts, instead of being compelled to discuss it as formerly, entirely from the point of view of the school of arts, without any reference to the schools which compose the university, we are able now to discuss it also from the point of view of the whole, and to receive from these men, who look at the work to be done, from their own respective points of view, suggestions that seem to them important.

Columbia recognizes, as I said, that to-day she is both a college and a university. She is also something more than that, if you please; because the professional schools in one aspect, are neither a part of the college, nor, pedagogically, of the university; that is to say, the law school, taking that as an illustration, accepts students who have been through the college, and it also accepts students who could not enter the college. Of course in one sense it is a university school. We look upon the faculty certainly as a university faculty; but we make some distinction in our thought as to the standing of the students who have been through the

college before they entered the law school and those who have not. What is true there is also true of the school of mines. We have declared to be university work, in a pedagogic sense, what was formerly called graduate work. There was graduate work done in connection with the school of arts, and graduate work done in connection with the school of mines, and in both cases the degree of doctor of philosophy might be had upon terms designated by the different schools. The first effect of our reorganization was to throw this graduate work under the charge of the university, and to bring gentlemen together representing all the schools to discuss the conditions on which the degrees of master of arts and of doctor of philosophy should be given. We found that the practice in the past had been different with the different faculties. When they came to act together, no faculty was willing to give these degrees on easier terms than another. The result was that the university council, after discussing the matter, laid down a series of rules to be the common framework by which every faculty which recommends for those degrees, must be bound. That common framework is a combination of the best points in use upon the college block by all the faculties, so that to-day, to get the degree of master of arts or doctor of philosophy from Columbia, one must come up to the highest standards combined that we formerly found in all the schools. Each one of the university faculties can recommend for these higher degrees, but final action depends upon the vote of the university council.

Following this reorganization was taken unanimously this other step, which in one sense, is perhaps the most important of all. The course at Columbia is practically a fixed course up to the end of the junior year. During the senior year, for a long period past, the student has been at liberty to make his selection of studies, I think at will. He has selected this or that subject and made up a total of 15 hours. He has had the privilege, for instance, of selecting his electives to a large extent in the school of science. When the school of philosophy was established, the same privilege was given to him as to that. The faculty of the school of arts then, by a unanimous vote, recommended that the same privilege be given to him under all the university faculties. This throws open to the senior for the first time the privilege of studying in the law school while he is still a senior. And

we feel, sir, that if a young man, instead of going through the law school, were to go into business, that he would take with him an even richer degree of B. A. than any we have given before, if a portion of his time during the senior year has been spent in the law school, the balance being under some other university faculty. The course in the law school has been extended to a three years course within the last two years. By this action of the faculty of arts it becomes possible for a young man to secure his degree of B. A. and also his professional degree in the same length of time as before, that is to say, in six years, while at the same time he will have had more professional training than hitherto. The first effect of that change was rather a significant one, as it came to me. A young man who had left the college at the end of his sophomore year, for some reason not known to me, was expecting to return next fall to enter the law school. When this new privilege was made known to him through the newspapers, instead of doing that, he proposed at once to study up all the work of the junior year, to come to college in the fall and pass his examination as a senior, then to study in the law school, and under some faculty besides — thus obtaining the degree of A. B., as well as the professional degree, with the same expenditure of time, as he had designed for the professional degree alone.

Such are the principal changes effected at Columbia this spring. You can see that they amount really to a revolution in the whole organization of the college. They have been made, I am happy to say, with absolute unanimity on the part of the faculty and the trustees, and we are very hopeful that they will justify themselves by experience, by enabling Columbia to do better work than ever before, that is to say, better work in the college proper, better work in the professional schools, and better work in the university as a school of the highest kind, leading to the master's and doctor's degrees.

UNION COLLEGE

Prof. William Wells.— I greatly regret that President Webster, through indisposition, is unable to be here to-day to represent the college, and at his request I assume the duty.

I am glad to be able to say that the college has just closed a very successful year. There has been no break in the general operation of the institution, and faculty and students have vied with each other for good results. The commencement was

unusually successful, and the attendance on Alumni day was larger than for many years. And this fact is an encouraging one, because Union depends upon her alumni more than any other of our colleges for this reason: when Union college was founded in the early days, it was the first college in this state after the war of the Revolution. At that period, and in this section of the state, the denominations were not strong enough apart to do much for the cause of collegiate education, and when Dr Nott took the college soon after its establishment, he conceived and carried out the idea of a union of the denominations for this purpose, and thus "Union college." The inter-denominational institution, supported by all the evangelical sects, soon became a great success, to which Dr Nott added by his personal influence with the legislative bodies of the state in Albany, very largely aided by his most influential ward and protégé, William H. Seward, who was sincerely devoted to his old friend and teacher. The state aid thus obtained gave to the college great advantages financially and soon filled its halls with students.

But when other denominations founded colleges in the state, as they now nearly all have done, these of course drew their young men to themselves, and left Union with no special denominational support. These colleges also appealed to the state for aid, but their numbers soon frustrated this, and no more assistance was granted to any in this line. Then came the days of the war, which decimated the college ranks; a large body of southern students left *en masse*, and nearly half of the northern students responded to the call of the country. This thinned the plethoric roll and threw the college after the war solely on its own resources for students and funds; and therefore its appeal to its alumni. And we are much gratified to be able to announce that this call has not been in vain. The sons of *alma mater* have come forth from their retreats far and near, and enthusiastic meetings have been held in New York City, in Albany, and various other centers in this state, while the men of the great West have assembled in force in Chicago, and arrangements are just now being made to form an association for the North-West, in St. Paul, and one already exists for the whole Pacific coast, in San Francisco. The alumni of the college are strong enough to make it what they please, for some 4,000 of them are scattered over the length and

breadth of the land. These then are our hopes and our prospects for the future.

In the matter of internal reorganization and improvement, I am free to say that no question has received more thoughtful and conscientious attention than that of the honorary degrees, and especially that of Ph. D. When this degree first came into general use among us, it was the ardent desire of the faculty that it might be strictly held as a degree of merit and work. But the wholesale and irregular way in which it now appears in many instances, and the total want of harmony among the colleges of our state regarding it, make it a very serious question to educators. It is now very clear that if the degree is to mean anything with certainty, there must soon be some harmony of action among the institutions granting it. The committee of our faculty in whose hands now lies the question for consideration and report, are unanimously of the opinion that it would be a most wise and desirable thing for the board of regents together with a representative body of the colleges of this state, to endeavor to settle on some harmonious course of procedure not only in this matter, but also in that of the M. A., a course whereby these two degrees might be acquired by merit and attainments only, and thus be worthy of acceptance and a title to consideration in all cases.

UNIVERSITY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

Letter from Vice-Chancellor MacCracken.— It seems impracticable for any one of our faculty to be at the Convocation Wednesday next.

I regret this, for there are several new and unique measures which have been adopted by us within the past year, notably

1. The alliance with the University of the Union Theological Seminary — upon the gift to each by Chas. Butler, LL. D., of $100,000.

2. The formal founding of the School of Pedagogy, for which several gifts have been received.

3. The appointment by our corporation of the "Women's advisory committee of the university."

4. The acceptance this month of a gift of money from twelve persons for the support for four years of lectures to "non-matriculants" upon legal topics, by Mrs Emily Kempin, Doctor of Laws of the University of Zürich, Switzerland.

We cannot do more than mention these four measures, for they are all of less than three months standing, but we hope for large results from each of them. In brief the last year has been the best in the history of our university.

Very truly yours

HENRY M. MacCRACKEN

COLGATE UNIVERSITY

Prof. W. H. Maynard.— I did not receive the circular. The professor of mathematics who received it was here a few moments ago, but is now absent.

The name of the university was changed during the winter. I don't know that any new methods of instruction have been invented, or that there have been any marked innovations during that time. Of course the death of our president has removed from us a tower of strength.

With regard to the future I can make no definite statement; but the work heretofore done by President Dodge will now be done by two men, who will be added to the faculty — a president and a professor.

I may state that the library building costing $150,000 is about completed, will be completed probably before the opening of the term. While we have had a librarian, we have not had one who has given his entire attention to that department. We expect next fall a librarian appointed who will give all his time to the library, and also that some new departments will be established and the work of overloaded professors be distributed among new men. The outlook for the future was never brighter.

ST LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY

Pres. A. B. Hervey.—We have had a successful year. This is the 25th anniversary of the graduation of our first class. We have graduated just now the largest class ever sent out from the college. Yet you will see that it is indeed a small college, doing a small work, when I tell you that that class numbered but 19. Our situation is peculiar, quite unlike that of any other college in the commonwealth. We occupy a place quite alone in the most remote northern region of the state, our nearest neighboring college being more than a hundred miles away. We are in a region where there are comparatively few institutions that fully fit

students for college. College-preparatory Greek is taught in not many of the high schools in northern New York, in St Lawrence, Franklin and Jefferson counties. Not many prepare really well in Latin. I suppose a majority, possibly, may have some kind of Latin instruction, but in many of them students get only English studies. Therefore if we take our students, as we do largely, from that region, we must take them as they come to us. They come often times but poorly prepared. So in reality we have to do some high school work along with our regular college work. That is to say; for those who come prepared only in English, we have what is called the "Scientific course", leading to the degree of bachelor of science. But this is in reality a modern-language course. In it the student begins German and French, but has in place of either of these, an elective of beginner's Latin. These are strictly speaking high school, and not college studies. In this particular course we are limited to that kind of work by the present condition of our preparatory schools. And yet it may be worth while to say that these students who take French and German along with Latin for three years, will show at the end of their college course pretty nearly as good work and pretty nearly as high a standard in all the studies which they have in common, as the other and better prepared students who have taken the full Greek and Latin course, completing the prescribed amount at the end of the sophomore year. They show also very nearly as much capacity for clear thinking, the very best test of disciplined ability and a well-trained mind. There is at least not a difference proportionate to the difference in the time actually spent in study. Rather I should say, the difference would be, not as between four and seven years, but as between four and five, or between four and five and a half.

During the last year we have instituted with good results, a course of study lying midway between the modern language and the classical courses. It requires a full preparation in Latin, but omits the Greek. In the college work German and French, one two years, and one one year, is required in place of the lacking Greek. For this work we give the degree of bachelor of philosophy. It adapts itself pretty well to our peculiar situation, in respect to the work of our preparatory schools just now referred to, and in a manner answers the modern demand for a more "practical" education.

I think of nothing to report in regard to new methods tried. We are going on in much the old path. I might make mention perhaps of a projected matter. I suppose it may be known to some of you that St Lawrence University is a coeducational college, and as such is one of the oldest in the state. In view of this fact, we are trying to endow a professorship to be held by a woman. We deem it important that the women in the college should have the advantage of a woman instructor, a woman, learned, cultivated, ladylike and accomplished, for their mentor and friend. We cannot without great loss withdraw from the discipline of college life, that which comes from social contact and social ideals. Young women as well as young men should have before them, in the faculty, these ideals of character and conduct, in one of their own sex. I hope in another year to be looking for the ideal woman to occupy this chair.

I have recently had my attention called to some work which has been done for a number of years in the sophomore class. It is called "parliamentary practice". I know not how far other colleges in the state introduce that drill, but by the method employed with us we get the very best results. It occupies one hour a week during the sophomore year. Regular debates are held, under the direction of the professor, in strict conformity to the rules of parliamentary law and practice. Acts, bills and resolutions are introduced, discussed, and passed or rejected, according to the laws governing deliberative bodies. I was present at the exhibition of the class at the end of the year and was greatly pleased with the success which seemed to have attended the work. The ability shown by these sophomores, to get on their feet and discuss questions of moment in an intelligent way, to give expression to their thoughts in good form, and with logical coherency, and to acquit themselves creditably in the sharpest debate, was something extremely pleasing to me. I do not know that this is peculiar to our college. I presume it is not. But it seemed to me that it was a part of that equipment for public usefulness which ought to be expected of every educated man.

One matter came up for discussion this year, about which I have an opinion, that perhaps may bear expression here. I refer to the matter of prize contests. When I speak of "prize contests", I mean rhetorical and oratorical contests, writing and delivering

orations and essays for prizes. I know not what may have been the experience of instructors in other colleges, but I have come to the conclusion that with us the whole effect is bad. I believe with Horace Mann that in the college as in the school, some evil effect must come from any contest in which by one person winning, another loses. In a small college like ours I find the spirit engendered is always a bad spirit, not a good one. Another thing which discouraged me quite as much in these prize contests was that those persons almost always won who should not have won. I have tried to select the best men in the community, as judges on these occasions; and I have no doubt that these gentlemen tried to be fair, and used their best judgment in awarding the prizes, but still four times out of five, the prizes have gone to the wrong persons.

In the matter of writing and speaking English, our instructors have their own standard. They teach the students how to write good English and how to speak it well. But when we go to these contests the judges give the prizes most often to those who write poorest English and speak it worst, thus as far as their influence goes undoing our work.

These are the only things which I think of to speak about to-day. We are trying in that remote region as Mr Bryce says, to hold up the symbol of learning before the people. We are also trying to keep ourselves in touch with the preparatory schools in northern New York, and encourage them to strive for higher and better standards. We urge them to bring the matter of a college education early to the attention of their brighter pupils, so that by the time they are thirteen or fourteen years old their work may be definitely shaped to that end. In this way we endeavor to keep the college and the preparatory school working in harmony to one purpose. So in our little place we may have our mission, and our work to do. We are trying to do it as well as possible.

ST STEPHEN'S COLLEGE

Warden R. B. Fairbairn.— By your ruling, Mr Chancellor, I do not see that there is anything left for me to say, except that St Stephen's College continues to do, as she has from the beginning, the work of an under-graduate college. And so interpreting the letter of the chairman of the Executive committee, I do not eel called upon to go beyond the mere announcement that we

have undertaken no new work, that we have adopted no new measures; we are simply trying to live up to our profession, that of an under-graduate college.

There were two or three points suggested to me in this connection, which put an under-graduate college in a new relation. The remarks of the distinguished president of Columbia College has suggested certainly that an under-graduate college, confining itself simply to that work, may appear to fall behind the work which is done in the same line in a large college, such as Harvard. I intended to say something in reference to this, but the subject will come up to-morrow and next day in the "Status of a college, and what institution should have power to grant degrees;" and "Are colleges requiring too much for admission." My present report is simply that St Stephen's College has held on to the work it originally undertook to do. It has not got beyond it. It has adopted no new measures but it has simply endeavored daily to do its work better.

VASSAR COLLEGE

Pres. J. M. Taylor.—The chief differences that have been made in the work of Vassar College during the past year concern two or three departments only. The work of the department of history, which has been admirably carried on for three years, and carried on, I may say, by the best methods, which were advocated in the first paper of the morning, has proved itself too large, too heavy a burden for one person, and we have felt compelled to call in an assistant and have established an associate professorship of history and political economy, which is filled by the appointment of Mr Mills, a doctor of philosophy of Cornell University. We have made distinctive progress also in the department of biology, which is almost a new department in the college. We have done away with the old method of teaching systematic botany, and have established an associate professorship of biology. The department has been growing through the entire year. It has now been made a separate department, with the title of instructor changed to that of associate professor. And we have fitted up a considerable laboratory for biological work. We have made progress also in the department of the history of art. The courses there offered are under the very efficient direction of Professor Van Ingen, who has gone abroad this summer in connection with this work, by appointment of the college.

We have established during the year also, and have thereby added very largely to our sculpture collection, a room of casts, for the illustration of a portion of these lectures. We have added also to the department of physical culture, having a new gymnasium built by the Alumnae of the college; it has just been completed and is now in capital working order, with the exception of the large swimming bath which will be connected with it. We shall give more attention to individual work in the development of the system.

We expect to appoint at once a professor in the Latin language, who will offer advanced courses in the Latin tongue, and we hope to encourage in this way, in this department as in others, the sort of University work to which reference has been made several times this afternoon. We had five such students in the college last year, our own graduates who were pursuing studies in Greek and history. The year before we had two in philosophy as well.

We have plans for advancement, which there is no need to report upon, as they are still in the future. They will be carried out if we get the money which legally belongs to us. I ought to say something with reference to the fact that we celebrated our 25th anniversary this year, and it has been a noteworthy event in the history of Vassar College. The most notable fact was the address of the Chancellor of the University, which I hope most of you will receive, in time, as it will be issued by the college in the fall.

MANHATTAN COLLEGE

Prof. Edward F. Fagan.—Some two years ago an experiment was tried in Manhattan College with a view to establishing an elective system of study whereby students, who had passed through the freshman and sophomore classes, might be accorded the privilege of some particular branches, which they would pursue during the junior and senior years. The results have proved satisfactory. No experiments or new methods were introduced or attempted during the year last past. A slight departure, if I may so term it, was taken in the senior class relative to a more thorough study of political economy. It was made a regular study to which three or four hours weekly were devoted. I may also state that in the department of chemistry and physics the accommodations have been considerably enlarged and young men in the freshman class are now obliged to experiment

under the immediate supervision of the professor. During the sophomore and junior years the students while pursuing chemistry on an analytical basis are compelled to practice by themselves and submit the result of their experiments to the class for inspection. The results in general throughout the curriculum have been equally as gratifying as those attained in other years. The graduates were up to the standard as evinced by the excellence of their examination papers. There is one thing about Manhattan College which I take pleasure in stating to the members of the Convocation, and that is, that no one receives a diploma from our college without deserving it. It is one of the colleges of the state that lives up to its charter. Its students receive degrees strictly upon their merits as scholars and characters as gentlemen. They must pass examination in the scheduled branches and whoever falls below the percentage required is refused a diploma, no matter what the consequence may be. I emphasize these facts because among our colleges of late there has been a sort of looseness in the granting of degrees which has had a tendency to lessen the interest students should have in earning them.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY

Prof. S. G. Williams.— I have thought as I have been sitting here that there was possibly a great advantage in being a representative of one of the youngest institutions over which the regents of the University have charge. I could almost regret that the decision of the Executive committee, enforced by the Chancellor, has prevented our hearing more of some of those interesting histories by which I was so much attracted in the case of two of the oldest colleges in the state, and more about those difficulties which arise as a result of age, that come to an institution as an outgrowth of its history. It seems to me there were some advantages in being born somewhat late. Some of the matters that have afforded a good deal of anxious care to other institutions have been less troublesome to Cornell University, one of the younger institutions, because of its later birth. We have had for example very little annoyance for the last three or four years from applications, covert or open, for our degrees *causa honoris*. It has been very plainly said that no degrees are given except upon examination of those who apply, and after a proper period of residence. Applications have frequently come in covert

form from those whom we would have been glad to have as Alumni, feeling sure that they would do us credit, but as we have constantly refused them, we receive them no longer. Our examinations must be passed by those receiving our degrees, and they must also have had the required amount of residence.

Some changes have taken place in the institution during the year, in this case the result of having but a brief history has been an advantage in rendering such changes easier.

Our general faculty is made up of the professors and assistant professors, except the professors of law. During the past year it has been found expedient, indeed essential, that there should be some authoritative channel of communication with the full professors of the University, and consequently what has been called the University senate has been established, constituted of all the full professors including those of law, whose chief function is to advise the trustees in regard to the founding of additional full professorships in Cornell University and the filling of vacancies in such professorships. The nomination to these is referred to this University senate, and they appoint their own committees and make the investigations which are essential in the effort to fill the full professorships. We have had occasion this year to fill two such places, one of them a new professorship which has been made necessary by reason of the growth of the English department. It has been found essential to have two full professors in that department, and the senate has had occasion to aid in the selection of the proper person for the additional place. The other professorship that we have had to take into consideration has been to provide a successor to Prof. Andrews, now president of Brown University.

Another change that has been made is one that may be of some interest to the Convocation in general, and that has been one which it has been found essential to make, not only in the way of elevating the standard of admission to the University, but also of raising the price of tuition. The University has been fortunate enough to attract all the students probably that it ought to have, and possibly the thing next to be done is to secure a closer selection. I think some two or three years ago in this Convocation, we were quite vigorously taken to task for the easy terms on which admission was gained to some of the technical departments of the institution, which it was claimed, worked injustice to the

academies. We took the reproof, I think, in the right spirit, and we have been endeavoring very diligently to no longer deserve that reproof. Any one connected with an institution in which technical departments exist, knows that there is difficulty in providing that the admission to these, on different requirements from those to the college departments proper, should be such as to be wholly just to the academies. I think that the changes in the requirements for admission to the technical departments, which will be found going into effect the coming year, have been such as will give to the academies full three years' work for all their students, and four years for those who are to enter in the college departments, which is what they desire. But in connection with this the charge has been made to me within the last two weeks, that possibly Cornell University, in raising the price of tuition and in raising also the standard of admission, as it has been doing for a number of years, has departed from the purpose of its founder. It was supposed, and I think rightly, that the purpose of its founder was to encourage men to enter college and get the advantage of a collegiate course, who had more brains than money. I think it is right for me say just here in a word that the institution in raising the requirements for admission, and in raising the price of tuition so that it is on a par with the older institutions like Columbia, Yale and Harvard, has not been unmindful of this wish of its founder. When I state that there are already 512 state scholarships, which admit to free tuition men who have more brains than money; that there are 36 university scholarships of the annual value of $200 each, chiefly held by students who have more brains than money; that there are 8 endowed fellowships of the annual value of $400 each; and that all students who enter the agricultural course, enter free of tuition, I think that no reproach can fairly be cast upon the University that it is not acting in accordance with the purposes of its founder.

I noticed, although I have been absent from home since I was informed, that I was to answer for the University to-day; I noticed the request made that the results of new experiments should be given at this Convocation. It seems to me that the results of experiments made within the year are usually very illusory. My own impression is that the results of experiments made in higher as well as lower education, can be judged only after they have been

some time in progress; and it may not be wholly out of place for me to state very briefly what I think have been the results of some of the experiments that have been for some time in progress in Cornell. Coeducation, at the time it was established in Cornell University, was I think for an institution of any considerable size, somewhat of an experiment. It may be interesting to those here to know that we consider it a full and guaranteed success.

Another experiment, as it might be called, has been the very general effort that has been made, during the entire existence of the University, to combine the theory with the practice of the various arts and sciences, by means of laboratory practice and seminary methods, which have been carried so far as to reach every department of the University. I think there is a general consensus of opinion amongst us that this effort has been a success. What has happened during the present year may serve as an example of this. We had occasion to erect four or five years ago a large building for the united occupancy of the departments of physics and chemistry. We have been compelled the present year by reason of the great demands which laboratory work makes upon room, to build an additional building for the chemical department, quite separate from that of the department of physics.

I would like to say a word also in regard to the effect of athletics and physical culture. Cornell University is sometimes spoken of, I believe, in the boating world. I am glad to say that I had the pleasure of aiding the election of one of the last university crew to Phi Beta Kappa, because he was one of the best scholars in his class; and a man who has been for two years in the successful crews, has also just been elected to the honorary scientific society, whilst the members of the two crews for the past year, have maintained a fair average of scholarship with the rest of the University.

RUTGER'S FEMALE COLLEGE

Pres. G. W. Samson.—I will endeavor, Mr Chancellor, to speak briefly of our college. It began as an institute in 1838, with Dr Isaac Ferris, who afterwards became Chancellor of the University of the State of New York. Coming from the city where we are met, and missing in New York city the advantages of Albany and Troy, where you know very well he with Dr Chas. E. West, organized what was really a college. In this brief abstract of its history I hold, Professor Henry, then of Princeton, afterwards Secretary

of the Smithsonian Institution, reports that the examination of 1842 in mathematics was as rigid as he had seen in any college. It introduced also the study of both Latin and Greek, and at the same time four modern languages; French and German of course, and also Italian as the language of art, and the Spanish; because just about that time it was to a certain extent a language of international intercourse, as perhaps it will be more so in years to come. In 1867, as indicated, it obtained its college charter. It was like the University of the City of N. York, ruled by stockholders; not the right management, educational or financial for a college. The then president was drawn into speculations in real estate in the city of New York, with another, in the fevered time of the Tweed ring. It was wrecked financially by putting mortgages on the college building to aid these speculations. Having obtained its new charter of 1888 the demand for investigation coming from the regents has compelled a suit, which the Alumnæ Association with a membership running back 50 years, some of whose husbands are eminent in our courts, are interested to press. Coming to the college in 1871 after 12 years service as President of Columbia University in Washington, D. C., the question what ought to be the curriculum of a college for young women as compared with a college for young men was naturally studied. The ideas which President Low has brought forward as to a university are vital. I do not believe there can be a university proper except in a great city. You have not the facilities for testing theoretic science by practical art except in a neighborhood where every kind of work is being practically performed; as is seen in our great commercial city, to be made glorious like Athens of old only when Neptune's sway is made subservient to Minerva's. There may be therefore a University of the City of New York as there is now a Columbia University, as it will undoubtedly be called, in the location where you can have one. For the highest success in your law schools there must be the supreme court, and every kind of court. So with every other department; or the training will be imperfect, in science, art and philosophy alike. As to colleges for young women, and their curriculum and degrees, it aids inquiry to remember that it was Victoria of England who originated the female college proper. Upon coming to the throne, in 1837, she had this thought: "I must bring in as my Prime Minister any man who comes up from the ranks. He will be

educated, of course; but how about his wife?" At first the principle of coeducation and of the highest title of nobility that of a college, came up to her mind. At Hitchin, midway between London and Cambridge, Professors went out to instruct young women. Very soon she was convinced, that, as in the private training of her own sons and daughters the collegiate education of young men and young women must not be *fellow* to each other but the one complementary to the other. Woman in all things is to be counselor; and in a great many respects, leader. There must be female instructors as well as male to make a college for young women what it ought to be. The curriculum was considered in a paper read to the regents in 1872; which was published at the time in their Proceedings in the State Educational Journal and in a pamphlet. The classical course, it was suggested, should be so modified, that the modern languages may take a larger place. So also the instruction in applied science must be modified, because art must have its place; music certainly, if not the plastic arts. Yet more in rhetoric and elocution a modification is called for; woman's mission in every respect ruling methods of her instruction. As to degrees, our charter forbids the giving of professional titles. Five departments, and the degrees attached to proficiency in them are open. The time-honored arts course with its degrees, without any question, must rule. Degrees in letters, also, are specially appropriate for a large class of those who enter female colleges. Again science in varied departments as it relates specially to the female organism, hygiene and even medicine are essential in the female education. Without doubt philosophy comes in. Attention has been called by several speakers to the greatly increased number of the highest of degrees, that of Ph D., now given in some of our new universities. Sir Wm. Hamilton has well recalled Aristotle's definition: "Philosophy is the science of sciences and the art of arts." You can not have philosophy until you unify both theoretic and practical knowledge; you can not unify knowledge until you have established science in each of its departments, material and spiritual, physical and metaphysical, and then bring theories in contact with nature to see how they work. Degrees in letters, arts, science and philosophy are as appropriately given to women as to men; while pedagogy is her chief vocation; for hers it is to train our children; let us be grateful for it! The degree of doctor of

philosophy has been given to only two candidates at Rutgers. One of these was Madame Roch, formerly professor at Vassar; who as a native of Switzerland was early trained at Geneva; then in northern Italy, at Turin, where she was personally associated with the now reigning family; and after coming to this country was eminent as a teacher at Vassar, and more recently in New York city.

Our era demands in this Convocation, increased consideration of these three points: First, what a college for young women should be as compared with colleges for young men; second, what should the curriculum be; and third, what degrees are appropriate.

CLAVERACK COLLEGE

Pres. William McAfee.—Learning but a couple of hours ago that I might be expected to say something at this time, and representing one of the younger and smaller colleges of the state, I shall trespass but briefly upon your patience. Claverack College is the development of Washington Academy, founded by Dominie Gebhard of sainted memory, in 1779, and of Claverack Academy, which received its charter from the regents of this state 50 years later. In the spring of 1869, the trustees applied for, and on the 4th of June of that year, received such an amendment to their charter as should permit them "to grant appropriate degrees to women." They were led to this action because they found a course of study was being taught, much beyond that of the usual academy curriculum, because many of the graduates in the academy desired to continue in a post-graduate course of study, for which they should receive suitable recognition, because the opportunities for the higher education of women were sparse in those days, and because they found the means in their hands were sufficient for the proper enlargement of the course of study. For these reasons, having received the amended charter, and changed the curriculum of work to conform to that laid down by the regents in the colleges for women, they have annually graduated a class from that time to the present. Two departments have thus been organized and in successful operation — the college of liberal arts, with 11 instructors; the college of music and painting, with nine instructors.

The aim of the institution has been to send out its students equipped with an honest, practical education, and to inspire its

graduates to enter the doors in the various departments of knowledge which it had opened to them. If it has had any distinctive features in its teachings, they are these: it holds that no substitute can be an equivalent in the cultivation of the mind for one or both of the ancient languages, and that no education can be complete without an acquaintance with the principles of the word of God, and that no culture of the intellect is satisfactory without a foundation of moral principle based upon religious truths. It is needless to say that the religious teaching of the college is purely evangelical and not denominational.

The college owes much to the able management for 30 years, until his death, of my predecessor, the Rev. Alonzo Flack, an honored member in his lifetime of this body and one who was ever deeply interested in all the educational problems of the state. The college department auspiciously began under his direction, has been carried on vigorously since his death, and will open its 22d year in September with a favorable outlook both of means and students, and a promise of growing usefulness for the future.

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY

Prof. J. Scott Clark.— The past year has been the most prosperous and most progressive in the history of Syracuse University. During the past year we have taken possession of new buildings, libraries, apparatus etc., to the value of at least $400,000. On the 18th of last September we dedicated and occupied the John Crouse Memorial College building, erected and equipped at a cost of about $300,000. We have also occupied our new library building, and have shelved and partially recatalogued the great VonRanke historical library, besides receiving material additions to our general library. We have also received valuable accessions to our biological laboratory in the form of botanical specimens. Heretofore the class exercises of both our college of liberal arts and our college of fine arts have been necessarily held in one building. The occupation of the John Crouse Memorial College by the college of fine arts, has enabled us to enlarge very materially our facilities for laboratory work in the sciences. In June, 1889, Prof. J. J. Brown, who had been in charge of the work in physics and a part of the work in chemistry, was relieved from active work and made an *emeritus* professor. Prof. Eugene Haanel, Ph. D. (Breslau), came to us after a long and successful

experience in Victoria University, Canada, to take charge of our reorganized department of physics. He has proved a great acquisition. In connection with the reorganization of this department, some $9,000 worth of new physical apparatus has been purchased. We have also fitted up a large new chemical laboratory for individual work. Mr Pattee, a graduate of the University of Rochester in 1886, who has been doing post-graduate work in this line, has just been elected instructor in chemistry, and much new chemical apparatus is to be purchased at once. Our work in French and German has also been readjusted, so that the work during the past year has been more satisfactory and practical than ever before. We are now prepared to turn out graduates well grounded in French and German.

The occupation of the John Crouse building by the college of fine arts has involved a material increase in the fine art faculty. The number of instructors has, accordingly, been raised from seven to 13. The most important acquisition to our fine art faculty is in the person of Prof. Percy Goetschius, for the past 15 years professor of the theory of music in the great German conservatory at Stuttgart. Another great acquisition to the fine art college has been the gift of the famous Wolfe collection of engravings, some 12,000 in number, from Mrs E. W. Leavenworth, of Syracuse, the wife of a former regent. Our medical college has, during the past year, been brought, by legal enactment, into more intimate relations with the other colleges of the university, and an annual fund has been provided for additions to the permanent equipment of the college in the way of specimens, etc. We have enrolled a maximum of 648 students during the year. We have now an active teaching force as follows:

College of liberal arts	13
" " fine "	13
" " medicine	15
Total	41

The statement does not include special instructors and lecturers.

So much for our material development during the past year. Of more importance, perhaps, have been the changes in our internal policy. Like many of our neighboring colleges, we have been more and more impressed by the discrepancy between the

requirements for admission to the scientific course and those required for the classical course. In order to determine whether the state of preparatory instruction would warrant us in advancing the requirements for admission, we sent out circulars of inquiry to all schools from which we had received students during the previous five years. On the basis of the information received, we have enacted that, beginning with September, 1891, students wishing to take our scientific course must present certificates or pass entrance examinations in all the Latin required for admission to the classical course, that is, in Latin grammar, four books of Cæsar, six orations of Cicero, the Eclogues, six books of Virgil, and Latin prose composition. We have also enacted that, beginning with September, 1891, the requirements in algebra for admission to *all* our courses shall be advanced so as to *include* quadratics and the accompanying work as given in Wentworth's Complete Algebra or its equivalent. Also, that, beginning with September, 1891, one year's German, that is, the ability to read easy German at sight, be required for admission to the scientific and the Latin scientific courses. We have also enacted that, hereafter, every student who is a candidate for a degree can not take the rank of a special student without forfeiting his right to work for a degree. We have also enacted that, hereafter, every student who is back in any entrance work can not recite with the sophomores; anyone back in any freshman work can not recite with the juniors, and anyone back in any sophomore work can not recite with the seniors.

We have at Syracuse three distinct colleges, each with its independent faculty, but all under one presiding chancellor. Our studies are prescribed during the first two years, but are largely elective during the last two years of the course. Syracuse University has never granted the degree of Ph. D. as an honorary degree. We require two years of hard study, verified by two rigid examinations. The only complaint ever made by persons who have *investigated* these examinations, is that they are too severe. Before one can enter upon a course of study for Ph. D., at Syracuse, he must have won the degree of A. B., or its equivalent, from some reputable college. We have repeatedly refused to permit persons to begin one of the courses because he or she was not in our judgment a graduate of a college of sufficiently high standing. Moreover, not all who undertake the course com-

plete it. More than once, during recent years, a candidate has come up to Syracuse, has looked carefully at the examination papers placed before him, and has "folded his tent like the Arabs, and as silently stolen away." One man last year wrote steadily for 14 days. As to the matter of granting Ph. D., without residence, we have only to say that if the post-graduate degree, granted without residence, is not warranted, then the great London University and the University of the State of New York ought to cease to exist, for they both grant degrees to non-residents alone.

As to the matter of prize giving, we at Syracuse have held from the beginning that the only wise reward to be held out to a student is the reward of obtaining knowledge and culture. We have no competitive contests and no prizes of any kind. Our students work for the sake of the acquirement, and the results prove the soundness of our views.

A word about the marking system. During the past year a report has been somewhat widely circulated that a chapter of Phi Beta Kappa was refused to Syracuse University because we had there no regular system of marking. Permit me to say that that report is unjust. Every member of our faculty at Syracuse marks carefully. The only difference between us and some of our neighbors is that we refuse so to *combine* all our marks in a four years course that the man who stands in the grand aggregate, 93.6, gets *everything*, while the man who aggregates 93.5 gets *nothing*. In that kind of impossible hair-splitting we do not believe. We feel that in this matter of a Phi Beta Kappa chapter, we have not been fairly treated and that the case was not decided on its merits.

WELLS COLLEGE

Written report from Pres. E. S. Frisbee.—The list of students, as was the case last year, is smaller than usual, owing to the fact that since the fire, room for a larger number has not been available either for the home life or for the purposes of instruction. At the beginning of both years, a larger number could have been received but for the lack of room. Of the total enrollment, 35 are in collegiate classes, with five to be graduated next June, 10 in preparatory studies and 12 unclassified.

The requirements for admission to the freshman class have not been essentially modified. The curriculum as a whole has been

extended by the addition of English literature during the freshman year, Anglo-Saxon during the sophomore year, and electives in history during the junior year. The scientific course is more distinctively scientific than it has been heretofore. The literary course is entirely new, for the purpose of meeting the needs of those who wish to devote themselves more exclusively to the English language and literature than has been possible in either of the other courses, and at the same time be graduated on the completion of the course. It is also intended to provide for a considerable number who would otherwise enter the ranks of "special students." With the addition of the subjects mentioned, and three separate courses, each leading to a degree, it is believed that all who seek the advantages of Wells College will be liberally provided for in the studies open to them.

As regards required studies and electives, Wells College is somewhat conservative, yet not more so than is consistent with the true aim of college training. In the junior and senior years there is good opportunity for the choice of subjects, under the guidance of the faculty. The principle of electives is still further extended in the choice of one of three detailed courses, so that Wells College does not essentially fall behind the larger institutions in this respect, except in some instances, in the number of electives and advanced lines of special study. In this last particular, it is only the larger, well-endowed, and splendidly equipped colleges and universities, that can offer extended facilities for unlimited study and research in particular directions. The aim of Wells College, and properly of all the smaller institutions, is a systematic, well-balanced training of both mind and character that will fit its recipient for life in its manifold relations or serve as a foundation for further successful special study.

Bravely, for the past two years has the college met and overcome the difficulties and deprivations immediately resulting from its great loss. Straitened for room, and in some directions sadly lacking much-needed equipment, it has maintained its high standard of instruction not only, but has made steady improvement in certain departments, especially the scientific. It has been sustained by the loyalty of its graduates and former students, who have contributed liberally towards a new library, and are now hoping to have ready by the next commencement the sum of

$10,000 as their gift towards the rebuilding. Under-graduates too, have accepted the situation with courage and cheerfulness. By their appreciation of the efforts of trustees and faculty, and hearty cooperation with them, they have aided not a little in the maintenance and continued growth of the college during this trying periods of its history.

The new building, thoroughly modern in its appointments, planned in the light of experience and a close observation of the working of the best colleges for women, may justly be regarded, on its completion, as one of the finest of its class, not in its size, but in the completeness of its adaptation to the aim of Wells College: "To secure the best intellectual training a college can afford, and at the same time retain the essential features of the home life." To this end, it is arranged for not more than a hundred students besides resident teachers; a large number, it is believed being incompatible with the best results of personal influence between instructors and students.

The occupation of this new building, therefore, can not but be an occasion of rejoicing on the part of all friends of the college — an occasion, also, for their renewed and sustained effort to insure at as early a date as possible the complete equipment of its library and other appliances of instruction — an occasion for still more generally turning the attention of those who are seeking such training as is here offered to an institution that is as genuine as its pretentions are modest, that is careful to promise no more than it can perform, and is sure to keep pace with the highest demands for collegiate training on the part of those who seek its advantages.

POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE OF BROOKLYN

Henry Sanger Snow, *trustee.*—I am called upon in the absence of our president, Dr Cochran, as a member of the corporation of the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn and its secretary, to report here on its behalf.

We have the distinction of being the youngest incorporated college in the state of New York. In August last, the board of regents granted our temporary charter, the last to bear the official signature of Chancellor Pierson. In January of the present year, that was replaced by our charter absolute; and it is the first charter in the state to bear the signature of the present Chancellor.

The Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn is, however, not new as an institution, but only as a corporation with college powers. It is the continuation and outgrowth of the Brooklyn Collegiate and Polytechnic Institute, which was incorporated as an academy by the regents in 1854. As long ago as 1870 that institute had so far advanced its curriculum and had obtained so satisfactory a reputation for the character of its work, that upon the suggestion of the officers of the University, it was given power to confer upon its graduates the degrees of bachelor of science and bachelor of arts — I think, the only academy in the state which enjoyed that power. It still, however, steadily expanded, both in the number of its students and in the extent of its work, until by successive additions and extensions to buildings and equipment the limit of opportunity and endeavor under the existing conditions was reached. It was found also that the work of the higher departments of the institute could not be done satisfactorily in the same buildings with its preparatory work. The constantly increasing demands upon the institute made it necessary therefore to extend its facilities by the acquisition of additional property and the erection of new buildings; and since the powers given by its academy charter were insufficient for these purposes, it became necessary to reorganize. The academy corporation was therefore dissolved and the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn, chartered with ample powers, was created to succeed it.

As a result of that reorganization we have substantially divided the institution into two distinct departments — the institute proper, embracing the higher or college courses; and the academic or preparatory department. We shall expect to have, at the opening of our fall term, some 250 students in the institute and about 600 in the academic department; we have had on the rolls during the past year some 800 students.

A further part of our recent development has been the erection of a large and thoroughly planned building. We have already received generous gifts of money, and expect still larger ones, which will enable us to meet these extensions.

Our academic department will fit its students for our higher institute, or for any of the other colleges; and it will prepare students who do not care to pursue a college or technical course, for business life.

The new building will contain an admirably selected library, for which a liberal gift during the past year enables us to make provision; and also a large and well equipped gymnasium.

The natural line of development of the Polytechnic Institute, as its name might indicate, is that of a technical school, or school of science. Its scientific departments comprise a department of chemistry, of civil engineering, and of electrical engineering. In all three we have established four-year courses, at the end of each of which we confer the degree of bachelor of science. As the result of a post-graduate year in the electrical department, we shall confer the degree of electrical engineer. Upon similar terms we may hereafter add the degree of civil engineer, in its proper course. Our institute will therefore be classed rather with the Polytechnic Institute at Troy, the School of Mines at Columbia, and the Scientific School at Cornell, if you please, than with the colleges of arts.

The institute provides also, as an important part of its advanced work a liberal course of four years, at the completion of which we confer the degree of bachelor of arts. In this course the study of advanced classics is largely replaced by that of the English language and literature and the modern languages. We have not become, and we do not aim to be, a college for higher instruction in classics; and we may perhaps eventually provide no classical instruction beyond that which is given in our academic department.

Now, Mr Chancellor, we have a fashion in the profession to which I have the honor to belong, when we have concluded the trial of a cause, in which the evidence has come out satisfactorily, but not quite in the order laid out in the pleadings, of moving the court to amend the pleadings to conform with the evidence. Inasmuch as the discussion of this afternoon has perhaps taken a somewhat different course from that indicated in the circular addressed to us, it might be well to follow the rules of law and move to amend the circular to conform with the reports which have been made. Certainly we have derived great satisfaction from listening to them.

And before closing, may I suggest one more thought that has occurred to me in the line of some already expressed. We have, I am sure, gained alike pleasure and useful information in hearing these reports from the various colleges of the state; and we have been glad to make one another acquainted with the work of our

several institutions. At the same time there are many institutions in this state that have not a clear understanding of what this University is; what are its scope, power and purposes; what are its relations to the institutions which compose it, and what are their reciprocal relations to it.

These considerations suggest to me that the influence of the University, and its benefits, might perhaps be felt more keenly, if in some way, either by the advice of this Convocation or as the result of it, action might be taken to bring the colleges and higher institutions of the state into closer association with one another and with the University of which they are constituent members. May not this be effected by a better federation of these institutions for the accomplishment of their common purposes, the maintenance of high standards, and that interchange of ideas and experience, which is valuable always? If we can accomplish this, I think we shall do something toward making the University of the Empire state imperial indeed in its usefulness, if not in its name.

N. Y. COLLEGE FOR TRAINING OF TEACHERS

Prof. W. L. Hervey.—The New York College for the Training of Teachers has the honor to be the first professional college for the training of teachers to receive its charter from the University of the State of New York. There is only one other member of this University which approaches this institution in character. It is an encouragement to be able to report that during the last year the principle which is at the basis of the New York College for the Training of Teachers, has received further proof of its vitality. There were three questions which had to be answered satisfactorily by this college before its success could be assured. First: Where will you get your students? Second: What will you teach them? Third: What will be done with them when they complete their professional course? The third of these questions was the first to be answered; for ever since the organization of this college its graduates have been in demand, and the demand has always been larger than the supply. The second question has been answered by the history of the last year, a conspicuously good year. Graduates of Columbia, Yale, Wellesley, and Smith, have come to us for admittance to the regular course, leading to the degree of bachelor of pedagogy; a degree which is given only to those who hold the degree of B. A. or who are of equal attain-

ments. We have also on our roll as students during the past year, or as applicants for admission to the college, teachers whose experience ranges from one to 20 years, who come to us to spend a vacation year in professional studies, for a higher point of view and the inspiration which comes with it. It is inspiring to us to be able to present the principles of the science of education to those whom liberal education and large experience have so well prepared to receive them. We have also graduates of high schools for whom the two years' course will be not only a means of professional training but also of culture as well.

The second question, as to the course of study at a training college, could be answered in only one way. Most of you know, perhaps, that the college was built around the idea of manual training; and then, from being philanthropic and industrial, it became, by an interesting process of evolution, purely educational. It is one of the proofs of the virility and the truth of manual training that, in its development of an institution, it turned first to psychology as its true basis and then to the entire pedagogic curriculum as its most effective propaganda. It was to be expected, then, that the manual training equipment should be a vital part of this college and that the backbone of the teachers' professional course is the science of education. Our students have proved for themselves the practical worth of these subjects, and the question "Of what use is psychology?" heard among those who substitute desultory reading for systematic study, gives them no trouble.

Great progress has been made in forming habits of analysis of mental processes personally and in others, of seeing the psychological bearings of every branch in the curriculum, and of regarding the curriculum as an organic whole.

Not so successful has been our effort to create enthusiasm and spontaneity in the scientific observation and record of facts about child life. Something more than a good beginning has been made.

Something more than a beginning has been made, however, in the training in the power to think from the standpoint of the teacher. No one can go, sentence by sentence, through Dr Harris' magnificent Rosenkranz' Philosophy of Education, taking care to give to every pair of abstract wings a good pair of concrete legs, without learning what it is to think. If, as Dr Harris says, per-

ception gains worth only as it leads to thought, the true teacher must know what it is to travel the road between impression and insight, and the teachers' college has no higher mission than to make familiar to its student teachers the steps of that road. Viewed in that light, a teacher's professional course will be something more than an educational specific or a local plaster. It will be a vital tonic and inspiration. I should not be far out of the way in saying that it is this aim which is the one above all others that guides the institution I have the honor to represent.

THE UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK

GEORGE WILLIAM CURTIS, LL. D., L. H. D.
Chancellor of the University

The grace of our summer is the literary festival. In the midst of pursuits remote from letters and science, the commencement season calls us from the market and the shop, and for one happy day blends the delight of intellectual communion with the culminating beauty of the year. As members of this Convocation we are members of a university. But we stand in no college halls, we are touched by no local associations, we exchange no greetings of old classmates, we share no fond traditions. What then is the significance of our assembly? What is the university that draws us hither?

The University of the State of New York is one of the oldest institutions in the state, but none of so great importance is so little known. Its Regents or governing body are elected by the legislature with the same circumstances that attends the election of Senators of the United States, a dignity which attests the original conception of the gravity and public value of their function, and the chief executive officers of the state are associated with them in the discharge of their duties. The nineteen chairs of the Regents, if not filled always by immortals like those of the French Academy, have been occupied by some of the most eminent citizens of New York. Every chair is ennobled by a long line of distinguished occupants, and the line is preserved by continuous succession. John Jay first sat in the chair in which I sit, then

the older Gulian Verplanck, then James Kent. Each of my colleagues traces a kindred ancestry of his chair, and contemplating the men whom he succeeds each acknowledges with me that in the truest sense *noblesse oblige*.

The names of illustrious men are the eulogies of those who bear them, and the inspiration of those who follow. George Clinton, who was the first Chancellor, and Alexander Hamilton, John Jay, Philip Schuyler, Egbert Benson, John Morin Scott, Pierre Van Cortlandt, Brockholst Livingston, Richard Varick, James Duane, Morgan Lewis, Abraham Yates, John Lansing, are among the earliest Regents of the University, and the most honored citizens of New York. Elected by the legislature in which the majority is determined by political sympathy the conditions of the nomination and election of the Regents bring within the range of party politics an action which should be absolutely independent of politics. But the highest tribute to the Board of Regents is the truth that although every member is elected by a party vote, yet at the door of their council chamber party vanishes and politics disappear. I believe that the Board of Regents of the University is the only important official body in this State elected by a strictly party vote, which in its action is entirely independent of party, and I have heard no complaint that for that reason its action is less efficient or less satisfactory.

But notwithstanding the dignity of its origin, the character of its Regents, and the constantly increasing importance of its service, the University long has been and still is singularly unknown to the great multitude of our fellow citizens. The popular idea of a Regent, fifty years ago, was that of a venerable figure, either bald or grayheaded, of irreproachable respectability and inexpressible pomp of manner, whose tottering steps were aided by a gold-headed cane, whose mysterious office was uncomprehended, if not incomprehensible, and whose aspect altogether might suggest a fossilized functionary of the paleozoic period. The poet Halleck, the gay laureate of the little city of New York seventy years ago, reflecting the popular fancy of the time, winged one of the Croaker's airy shafts of satire at the Regents. A few months since, upon my election to the Chancellorship, an intelligent citizen of New York, if I am justified in using precisely that adjective, asked me if my new duties would require my personal instruction of the classes in the University. Upon my amused

reply he also smiled and confessed that he had heard of the institution all his life but had never known what it was. One of the most eminent lawyers of the state begged to congratulate me upon my election and at the same time to ask where the University was situated; and when recently I was relating these two anecdotes to one of the most sagacious merchants in the city, he smiled demurely and then said modestly, "I should like to know, too." But when a son of Harvard, his sublime head striking the stars, asked, "What is the University of the State of New York," I could but murmur,

"Tantæne animis cœlestibus"—ignorantiæ?

I felt that such bewilderment upon such a subject ought to be remedied. If it were the fault of the University, it was obviously a fault of modesty. If it were merely the ignorance of citizens of New York who ought to know better, it illustrated the imperative necessity of immediate higher education.

It is true that I speak at this moment to precisely that company of scholars and collegiate and academic teachers which at once comprises and comprehends the University. But if in speaking to you I may be overheard by those who may learn in that way but are unlikely to learn in any other, I know that your devotion to the good cause is such that you will willingly sacrifice yourselves once more to hearing what you already know fully in order that others may know a little.

When the last gun of the Revolution was fired, the tough old Governor of New York, George Clinton, who had fired a great many of them, saw that the whole system of education in the state was prostrate. There was no public school system, the private schools languished, and the only college, blighted by a name of evil augury to the Sons of Liberty, had been closed during the war. The Governor immediately urged the legislature to consider practically the revival and encouragement of schools. The legislature promptly responded and in the first session after the war the Regents of the University were incorporated as the governing body of King's College,—which was to be revived under the name of Columbia,—and of such other colleges as the Regents might choose to establish. Some details of the scheme were amusingly crude and imperfect. There were sixty-four Regents besides those elected as representatives of religious

denominations, widely scattered over the state. Meetings were very difficult, and the only duty of the cumbrous body was the care of a very small classical school. This duty included not only employment and payment of professors from an income of not more than £1,200, and prescribing a system of discipline for the students, but repairing the college building, making the porter's lodge comfortable, buying a bell to summon the students and four cords of wood annually to warm the professors, and providing mops and dust pans for the domestic welfare of the little college. It was a humorous disparity of means and ends, but a disparity easily remedied.

Three years later, in 1787, the legislature, at the request of the Regents, authorized a revision of the law. Alexander Hamilton was that year an assemblyman, and Ezra L'Hommedieu was a senator, *O si sic omnes!* and they were both Regents and members of the Committee on Revision of which Hamilton is believed to have been the controlling force. The act which they submitted created the University substantially as it now exists. It is a work worthy of our foremost master of statecraft, and it is interesting to study it as an illustration of his creative public genius. Its design was simple, characteristic, and comprehensive. It forecasts in the sphere of education the political organization which the Constitutional Convention of the same year applied to the Union of the States. Hamilton's report while dealing with academic education declared that primary schools in the state should not be left to the discretion of private citizens, but that primary instruction should be given in public schools by public authority. Under the name of the University of New York he evidently meant to include the whole system of education in the state, and to give it the vitality and vigor which result from local government under a strong, central, supervisory supremacy.

The bill submitted to the Board by Hamilton's Committee became law. It authorized the Regents to visit and inspect all colleges, academies and schools which were or might be established in this state, to examine into the condition of education, and to make a yearly report to the legislature. It empowered them to confer the highest degrees, to charter colleges and academies and to promote academies to collegiate rank. The act released the Regents from responsibility for the repairs and cleanliness as well as the finances and discipline of Columbia

College, giving to it a certain independence of the University by reviving the original charter of 1754, but retaining in the Regents the power of visitation and inspection. Although empowering the University to grant degrees, Hamilton seems to have designed it to be substantially a comprehensive state department of education. Informed of the situation and necessities of that interest by visitation, inspection, and investigation, the Board of Regents was to influence by its report the action of the legislature. It was to be the agency and the sole agency by which the relations of the state to education were to be conducted.

This was the original and fundamental scheme of the University of the State of New York, and except in one point this is included in its present scope and power. It is now the intermediary of the state, not with all the institutions and interests of education, but with those only of the higher and secondary education. The vast system of the public schools has never been placed under its control. For some time it was administered as a separate interest by the Superintendent of Common Schools, then by the Secretary of State, then by a Deputy Superintendent, and more recently and never more ably than now, by a distinct authority, the Superintendent of Public Instruction. The state has preferred this division of powers, and there is no clash or friction between the two departments. Soon after my election as Regent it seemed to me that a return was desirable to the original design of Hamilton, and that the relations of the state to education should be intrusted to a single authority. But after long observation and reflection I have come to doubt whether Hamilton himself would now advise a change. As a statesman Hamilton was of the school of Burke, which is distinctively that of the English political genius. In his plea for conciliation with the colonies, Burke said to Parliament with that resounding magnificence of utterance which has made his great speeches not only historical events but splendid possessions of literature, the question is not whether we have the right to tax the colonies, for right is a phrase upon which men differ, but, under all the colonial circumstances and conditions, is it wise to tax them or to allege an abstract right which it is inexpedient to enforce? Parliament thought it was, and Daniel Webster wisely said, therefore, that the American Revolution was fought upon a preamble.

The relations of the state to education in New York have been determined according to the genius of our race and of Anglo-Saxon institutions, by experience and the sense of the public welfare. In accordance with that genius they should be changed or modified only to secure a greater benefit, not to satisfy consistency or a logical requirement. Abstractly, Hamilton might say, a single agency would seem to be better adapted for the management of that relation, but the practical question with an existing situation is not how it might have been different, but whether, as it is, change would improve it. The problem of what might have been is always insoluble. The psychologist speculated in vain who wondered whether if Sir Isaac Newton's father had married another woman than his mother, Sir Isaac Newton would ever have been born.

The state has established a system of supervision for colleges and academies and higher institutions of learning. It has been tested by long experience and it can not wisely be changed until it is shown that a proposed change under all the circumstances would secure a better performance of the duty. But I doubt if any department of the state service is more efficiently, economically and satisfactorily administered than that which is confided to the Regents of the University. Your house may be of odd design and grotesque proportions, lacking both unity and symmetry, but if it be comfortable, spacious and convenient, if some romance of time, some charm of tradition, invest it, you would be hardly a wise man if you pulled it down merely because originally it might have been a Palladian mansion or modeled from the Parthenon.

While the original powers of the University were great, the satisfaction of the state with the service of the Regents is shown by the enlargement of those powers. In 1846 they were made Trustees of the State Library and of certain local law libraries. The next year they were created Trustees of the State Museum of Natural History. They are authorized at their discretion to confer the highest honorary degrees; to appoint Boards of Medical Examiners and on their recommendation to confer the degree of M. D. They hold examinations and grant certificates preliminary to legal studies, and in all the academies they hold examinations which determine the standards of

academic instruction in New York. They are custodians of the historical documents of the state, and of certain legislative documents. They maintain a duplicate department of documents and conduct the publication and distribution of state works of the highest scientific character, and they have charge of the investigation of the condition of the state boundaries and of restoring the monuments along the lines. Finally, after more than a century, the legislature of 1889 attested the confidence of the state in the discretion and fidelity of the Regents by the passing of an act defining the purpose, powers and organization of the University, incorporating with it as substantial parts the State Library and Museum, and still further confirming and enlarging its scope and authority. From all the institutions subject to their visitation the Regents may require an annual report under oath, and for sufficient cause they may alter, amend or repeal the charter of any institution of the University, that is to say of any incorporated college, university, academy, school, library, or museum in the state of New York.

It is plain from this sketch that the University of the State of New York is wholly unlike the institutions generally known as universities. It is not as its name seems to import a school of instruction with the traditions, associations, and imperishable local charms of personal feeling and romance with which a college is invested. It is not a western Bologna or Salamanca or Paris, nor a Berlin, Heidelberg or Bonn. It is in fact the sole example of what President Gilman describes as a Supervisory University. Its powers include the crowning authority of the familiar university, that of conferring degrees, but they do not include the influence of college residence and the opportunity of a faculty of instruction. Its Chancellor is not the President of a body of teachers, but the chairman of a Board of Trustees.

Undoubtedly the name University has been the source of much confusion and perplexity. Universities are of many kinds, but the general significance of the name is indisputable and determined. Some of my predecessors have indulged a pleasing fancy of an organic resemblance between this institution and the older European universities. But this fancy seems to me wholly illusory and under the circumstances, mischievous. Our institution is possessed of powers so large and definite, and its opportunities of service to education and to the state are so extraordinary, that

it need not foster any illusions nor acquiesce in any pleasant misconception. To speak of a European university of the older type, of Salerno, of Pavia, of Paris, of Oxford, is to summon the vision of a great school thronged by multitudes of students, and taught by famous professors. Bologna was distinctively a school of law; Salerno, of medicine; Paris, of philosophy or the arts; but they were first of all schools of instruction. Great teachers made great universities by attracting great hosts of pupils and investing the school with the authority and renown of superior scholarship. The eminence of teachers is the essential characteristic which in the general understanding of the word, a university has never lost.

The English university which, I think, our own is thought to resemble, differs somewhat from those of the continent. Oxford and Cambridge, from whose revered shades so many of the earliest fathers of this country came — as the Principal of the youngest college at Oxford recently said, "Puritan Cambridge was the mother of New England"— are clusters of venerable and historic buildings standing in an atmosphere of calm, within the pensive shadow of immemorial trees. An English university is a system of adjacent colleges, separate in discipline, and, within a certain range, in instruction, but united in a common life, a common fame, a proud and ancient tradition. Milton was of Christ's, Sir Isaac Newton of Trinity, Gray of Pembroke, but they were all of Cambridge. Wolsey was of Magdalen, Hooker of Corpus Christi, Shelley of University College, but their fame is Oxford's. Each college has its tutors and its deans, its own library and chapel, its lecture rooms and dining hall, but all members of all the colleges are members of the university and subject to its government and laws. They all attend the lectures of the university professors. The university holds the public examinations, the university confers the degrees. The mainspring of the system as regards education, says Goldwin Smith, formerly Professor of History at Oxford, lies in the university examinations for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. The distinction of Philippa Fawcett this summer is not the glory of a college at Cambridge, it is that she has surpassed the Senior Wrangler, the best mathematician of all the colleges, and won the highest honor of the university and the year.

If the University of the State of New York should hold examinations for the Bachelor's degree, undoubtedly so far it would

exercise a power like that at Oxford. But it would not be the students of Syracuse and Hobart and Rochester, of Ingham, St John's and St Stephen's, whom it would examine; and Columbia, Cornell, Union and Hamilton would not be related in the University of the State, like Baliol, Merton and Oriel at Oxford, or Trinity, Caius and Kings at Cambridge. It is but the illusion of a name which seems to identify with the English Universities and to invest with their romantic glamor the University of the State of New York. The University requires no residence, for it has no halls. It gives no instruction, for it has no teachers. It holds no examinations of the students of its colleges, for its colleges prescribe their own examinations and confer their own degrees. Let us renounce the unnecessary fiction to which much misapprehension concerning the University is due. It is the bright will-o'-the-wisp of a name, the bewildering endeavor to find somewhere on the heights of the Hudson or the meadows of the Mohawk or the Susquehanna, a visible and storied pile of ivied wall and ancient tower, some loitering group of Sidneys glad to learn; some Wickliffe, More or Newton, ripe to teach; but an endeavor everywhere baffled and vain, that makes the Regents the futile potentates of a shadowy realm, the impotent masters of a school of ghosts.

It is true indeed that in busy streets and peaceful fields and on happy heights of the imperial state there are independent colleges belonging to the University, and quick with the college life and traditions at once so dear and so influential in thousands of hearts and lives. But the University itself is invested with no more romance than the Department of Public Instruction. It is the agency by which the state conducts its relations with the whole system of higher education in the commonwealth. Yet it is much more than a mere supervisory agency. Like that kindred department, it has two great but different functions. One is the management of the immense system of detail of academic administration, the other comprehends its noble public duty and responsibility as the stimulating heart of a constantly enlarging and progressive educational life. The University acts directly upon the academies, indirectly upon the colleges. Its action upon the academies lies in the system of preliminary and advanced examinations and the detailed discussions of the Convocation. This action, if vigilant and wise, assures the constant elevation of the standard of acad-

emic instruction, making the distribution of state aid dependent upon conformity to the requirements of rigid but reasonable examinations.

The value of this service of the examinations is attested by my own experience as a Regent. In the year 1863, the year before the establishment of the preliminary examinations, and fifteen years before the advanced examinations were instituted, the first Convocation was held, a deliberative assembly of the officers of the colleges and academies of the state, which has now grown to this important and imposing congress. At that Convocation I asked the teacher of one of the largest academies how many pupils he had sent up to college that year. He answered twelve; and when I asked if they went to New York colleges, he answered "ten to New York and one each to Harvard and Yale, and I am prouder of those two than of the other ten." Those few words were a comprehensive and exhaustive commentary on the condition of academic education in New York. It was twenty-seven years ago. But I do not believe that there is a single principal in the Convocation to-day who need make such a statement or who would be disposed to make it, and the difference of the situation is due to the initiative of the University. Devoted, accomplished and able principals throughout the state might raise the standard in single academies. But the comprehension of all the higher schools in itself enables the University to raise the standard of the whole academic system, and to advance the character and renown of secondary education in New York.

The influence of the University upon the colleges lies in this heightened standard of preliminary academic instruction providing for the college more advanced and riper pupils. It lies also in the deliberations of this Convocation, which is an assembly unknown in other states. In no other state do teachers and officers of colleges and academies meet annually to confer upon the condition and progress, the aim and principles, the spirit and methods, of secondary and higher education. The comparison of experience, the result of individual thought, the discussion of experimental measures, the consideration of academic and college policy in its largest sense — for instance, the fair demand and due degree of physical culture in the college course, its conditions and relations; all radical departures from ancient traditions such as shortening the collegiate term now under consideration by Har-

vard and Columbia; the relative importance of the classic and the scientific college curriculum; degrees and the suitable authority to grant them and the conditions on which they shall be granted—indeed, the whole range of the imperial and vital public interest of higher education is the province of this Convocation.

But its actual influence upon the colleges does not depend upon the opportunity, but upon the use of the opportunity. Columbia, Cornell, Syracuse and Colgate, Vassar and Hamilton and Rochester, and all their sister schools, will heed when they hear what is worth heeding. The University in Convocation will affect the college policy when it speaks with an authority which is not perfunctory, but of a wisdom that is felt to be superior. The voice of Harvard commands the attention of the college world, not because it is our oldest university, but because experience has shown that it speaks only after wise observation and careful reflection. A thousand smatterers may speculate unheard upon language, or upon a Greek pediment or particle, or a Latin phrase, but when Whitney speaks at Yale, Goodwin or Norton at Harvard, Drisler at Columbia, Lincoln or Harkness at Brown, every student in every college turns to listen.

But the influence of this University upon the colleges of the state is now possible in a much more direct and fundamental form than ever before. Without the advantage of college residence, which I have described as integral in the familiar conception of a university, and which many a graduate tenderly feels to have been the chief value of his college course, this institution may now bring the benefits of college instruction and the incitements of the collegiate degree to every studious youth in the state of New York. It may do for every such youth what the London University, which has no "distant spires," no "antique towers," does for every young man who submits to its examinations. The lecturers of the London University, indeed, are a body of the most eminent masters in letters and science. But it does not require residence in any particular place nor attendance upon the lectures or recitations of any special teachers; it requires for its degree only success in its examinations. Those examinations are thorough and severe, and the degree of the London University is a certificate of scholarly attainments not less than that of Oxford and Cambridge.

The authority of this University to extend the range of collegiate instruction and the benefit of the collegiate degrees is not

derived from its powers of visitation and inspection, but from the law which authorizes the Regents "to maintain lectures connected with higher education in this state," and to "establish examinations as to attainments in learning and award and confer suitable certificates, diplomas, and degrees on persons who satisfactorily meet the requirements prescribed." Here is full authority to undertake the work which is called University extension, a work not unknown in this country and which in England has produced remarkable results. By lectures and correspondence and counsel the English Universities stretch their beneficent hands throughout the kingdom and everywhere quicken into life dormant or aspiring intelligence and capacity. The Polytechnic Institutes in London, the Ragged Schools, the People's Palace, with the University extension and the civil service examinations, are the hopeful signs of English civilization to-day, like the penal, prison and sanitary reforms at the beginning of the century. They all reveal the activity of that deepening human sympathy which has heard in the garden of the world the voice not to be evaded, "Where is Abel, thy brother?" which knows that hiding will not avail, and that the question must be answered.

This power of maintaining lectures, holding examinations and granting degrees, without residence under its jurisdiction or instruction by teachers of its own, while it brings this University, so far, directly into the fraternity of colleges, invests it with immense responsibility. The power might be grossly misused by cheapening the degree to the detriment of sound learning, the degradation of higher education, and the shame of the University and the state. Plainly an unwise exercise of the power would precipitate a jealous conflict between the University and the colleges. But great powers are granted to those who have shown themselves worthy of great responsibilities, and there need be no more apprehension of an abuse of the authority of holding examinations and conferring degrees by the University than by Columbia, or Union, or Cornell, or any university or college in the state which now holds similar powers. Any exercise of this great authority which should belittle and debase instead of enhancing the value of a degree, would justify the withdrawal from the University of a trust which it had betrayed.

The fitting time and method for the exercise of this power should be determined with great deliberation. The purpose would

be the extension of the incitement to higher study which is offered by the opportunity of securing a degree, and the opening of such opportunity would be a wide and awakening appeal. Collegiate residence is within the reach of comparatively few of the American youth who with this invitation would eagerly qualify themselves for a degree. There is no nobler, more touching or more characteristic American story than that of the family which gladly spares its comfort, which stints and almost starves, that the studious son may go to college. It is a generous sacrifice by which the family, the boy, and the country, are all gainers. It is the spirit which has made us what we are. But many such sons, unable to go to college, even now master in solitary study the knowledge which the college certifies with a degree. If the University can bring the degree to that solitary student, ought it to be withheld for the want of residence? If the degree be regarded as a certificate of attainment in study acquired in four years, ought it to be denied to equal attainments acquired in three or two years? If, again, the Bachelor's degree now certifies a certain personal experience and training of character derived from collegiate residence, not less than proficiency in study, should there be a new degree for the external student, who like Charles Lamb has not fed upon "the sweet food of academic institution?" These are questions, also, which must be answered.

Yet in such new paths our steps may well be wary. Their besetting dangers, the dragons in this path, are superficiality, a counterfeit scholarship, a shallow smattering instead of thorough knowledge, mental effeminacy and smirking intellectual pretense. A University which should countenance the propagation of such "Gorgons and Hydras, and Chimeras dire" in the upward path of education would be a king by his own act ignominiously discrowned. But in our firm insistance upon well-grounded and comprehensive scholarship we must not forget that, despite the poet, a little learning is better than no learning. The Scotchman would not forego reading his Burns because he could not read the Talmud, and the Scotchman would be right. The farmer need not relinquish his knowledge of addition because he can not grasp the integral calculus. The mellifluous poet who gives us the couplet would hardly have declined his own taste of the Pierian spring because he could not drink deep like Shakespeare. If, indeed, to extend the University were necessarily to attenuate

and lower the standard of the education it represents, extension should be left to other agencies. But with due care I see no more reason for apprehending this result than that the exterior examinations of Harvard and Yale will be less rigorous than those within the college halls. Why may not a wise and careful extension of the University, carrying the torch of learning into regions hitherto unlighted and cheering many a student who now sits in darkness, show that education is not cheapened but that its blessing is like that quality of love which the poet celebrates?

> "True love in this differs from gold and clay,
> That to divide is not to take away."

That there may be difficulties and even dangers in the path is not always a valid reason for abandoning the journey, as once Columbus thought, and in later days the Pilgrim fathers.

From such hints as these it is plain that while this University is like no other, and although its name may easily perplex speculation, it is an educational institution of vast powers and opportunities, and consequently of extraordinary responsibilities. Like all such public trusts its administration may decline into a mere perfunctory observance of routine, or it may produce the highest public benefit. The choice between these alternatives will depend upon the hearty coöperation, both in spirit and purpose, of the central authority and of the widespread and independent collegiate and academic membership of the University. While the Regents are the trustees elected by the representatives of the people who confer a trust, this Convocation is the representative body of the various institutions of which the University consists. This is the congress of higher education in New York. It should speak the thought of New York upon this cardinal interest of a free country, and to its deliberations the whole country should turn to ascertain whether upon the fundamental questions of educational life and progress it has anything to learn from the empire state, or whether New York is imperial only in extent and population, in natural resources and material prosperity.

The credentials — I might say, in view of the ultimate purpose of the Convocation, the highest credential — of every member is not derived from his office as a teacher, but from his profound conviction as a man of the grandeur of the intellectual life. As an American citizen he comes here with no deference to any other interest. The scholar bows to the superior intelligence, if such it

be, but not to the money of Crœsus. Leigh Hunt said with fine democracy of feeling, "I thought that my Horace and Demosthenes gave me a right to sit at table with any man, and I think so still." If our convictions did not assure us of the essential value of intellectual pursuits and possessions, history constantly illustrates it. It is a pleasant anecdote of the banker Fugger, who received Charles the Fifth as his guest in his palace at Augsburg, and lighted a fire with Charles' bond of a million florins to warm his majesty's hands. In an hour the fire was out, and banker and emperor and empire are long since gone. But John Milton, the poor blind school-master, kindled an immortal flame of poesy which still cheers the human heart. "The garners of Sicily," said Lowell to the sons of Harvard on the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the college — "the garners of Sicily are empty now, but the bees from all climes still fetch honey from the tiny garden plots of Theocritus."

We never tire of our fond and familiar tale of American progress and development. We are nationally a little moonstruck by that resplendant orb of Addison's which

> "Nightly to the listening earth
> Repeats the story of her birth."

We can not enough recount the miracles of our nativity. In the very first year of the century when they were but beginning, Gouveneur Morris said, "Calculation outruns fancy and fact baffles calculation." We are naturally dazzled by the splendors of our inventive genius, by our industrial accumulations and the marvelous display of human energy that within so short a time has transformed a trackless continent into the smooth highway of triumphant civilization, outdoing the Roman empire in the world-wide plentitude of its power, by as much as human freedom and happiness are better than human subjection and mere dominion. But amid the exaltation and coronation of material success let this University here annually announce in words and deeds the dignity and superiority of the intellectual and spiritual life, and strengthen itself to resist the insidious invasion of that life by the superb and seductive spirit of material prosperity. It is a spirit which spares neither trade nor profession, neither politics nor morals. Let us withstand it by the spirit which we cultivate here, the clear perception of the true end of education that inspires our work whether in college, school, museum, academy

or library. "Universities," said John Stuart Mill, twenty-three years ago, "universities are not intended to teach the knowledge required to fit men for some special mode of gaining their livelihood. * * * Education makes a man a more intelligent shoemaker, if that be his occupation, but not by teaching him to make shoes, it does so by the mental exercise it gives and the habits it impresses."

The most precious gift of education is not the mastery of sciences, for which special schools are provided, but noble living, generous character, the spiritual delight which springs from familiarity with the loftiest ideals of the human mind, the spiritual power which saves every generation from the intoxication of its own success. A triumphant prosperity and a socialism which anticipates the millenium from legislative acts and ingenious organization, forgetting that the kingdom of God is within you, instinctively aim to bend the college to their own uses. They tempt it to train chemists, engineers, metallurgists, specialists in every science, not for the higher but for the lower value of knowledge, not to supply delights more precious than riches but to teach the secret of a surer and swifter way to wealth. But even in literature it is a poor education which ends in accurate grammar and precision of metres instead of a love of letters, and Agassiz spoke for the scholar in science when he was besought for the reward of a fortune to enter the services of a company, and answered, "I have no time to make money."

You will not understand me as depreciating special training for the readier development and finer adaptation of natural resources and natural forces to the welfare of man. I am speaking only of the spirit in which the cause committed to us should be served, and of the life, not the learning, which is the consummate flower of education. I have heard it said that liberal education does not promote success in life. A chimney sweep might say so. Without education he could gain the chimney top, poor little blackamoor! brandish his brush and sing his song of escape from soot to sunshine. But the ideal of success measures the worth of the remark that it may be attained without liberal education. If the accumulation of money be the standard, we must admit that a man might make a fortune in a hundred ways without education. But he could make a fortune, also, without purity of life, or noble character, or lofty faith. A man can pay much too high a price

for money, and not every man who buys it knows its relative value with other possessions. Undoubtedly Ezra Cornell and Matthew Vassar did not go to college and they succeeded in life. But their success, what was it? Where do you see it now? Surely not in their riches, but in the respect that tenderly cherishes their memory, because, knowing its inestimable value, they gave to others the opportunity of education which had been denied to them. Let us make their lofty spirit the spirit of the University. Remembering that the great ministry of education is not to make the body more comfortable, but the soul happier, may the University in all its departments and activities cherish and promote education not for its lower uses but for its higher influences.

WHAT CONSTITUTES A COLLEGE AND WHAT INSTITUTIONS SHOULD HAVE POWER TO GRANT DEGREES?

PRES. DAVID J. HILL, UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER

It is probable that no sophist will expend his energies in finding fault with the form of this double question; and yet, for the sake of clearness, it may be well to divide it and to consider its two members separately, leaving their combination to be justified or rejected in the light of the relations shown to exist between them.

1. What constitutes a college? The nature of an organization is a question of history and description rather than of abstract definition. Etymology is as impotent as logic in furnishing an answer. It is neither the meaning of a word nor an ideal of philosophy that is demanded.

The word "college" is applied to a particular kind of educational institution only by an accident. The Roman idea of the word was simply "an association", "a body of colleagues", "a society of persons enjoying like privileges and performing like functions". It was applied to religious societies, such as the "college of pontiffs"; to political bodies, such as the "college of tribunes"; to industrial guilds, such as the "college of artisans". The *collegium tenuiorum* was a voluntary association of poor men who combined for the purpose of securing burial. Our modern colleges are largely associations of poor men who combine in order

to avoid a premature burial! The meaning of the word evidently casts no light upon the purpose or function of a "college".

As an historical question the nature of a college must be determined by the actual evolution of the institutions to which the name is applied. At the beginning of the thirteenth century the universities of Europe were already in existence. They consisted of companies of teachers and scholars drawn together for the purpose of imparting and receiving instruction. They were subdivided into "faculties", the full complement being four, those of philosophy, theology, law and medicine. The word "university" was first applied to such aggregates of teachers and scholars in their *totality*, as the word implies. It soon came to be restricted to the governing body. The students lived in private lodgings and assembled for instruction at first in the houses of the professors, later in buildings erected for the purpose by the corporation. Early in the thirteenth century benevolent persons, mainly from religious motives, erected houses for students where they could be withdrawn from their close and sometimes belligerent relations with the citizens, necessitated by their scattered mode of life, and where they could be directed in religion and in study by chosen masters. Such houses, originally boarding clubs whose main purpose was the charitable supply of habitation and aliment under the influence of religion, received the name already applied to other associations of the most various kinds, and were called "colleges". Everywhere in Europe they sprang up in the university towns. They were especially fostered by the Roman Church as affording a kind of semi-monastic discipline. They were richly endowed and in many cases attained an individual importance that elevated them into a power and influence above that of the universities. This was especially the case in England. The policy of Archbishop Laud imparted to the separate colleges at Oxford and Cambridge an autonomy that left to the university no power of function except the most general supervision and the granting of degrees. In Germany, on the contrary, the universities maintained the ascendancy, until at present the colleges are extinct and the universities are, with more perfect organization and development, what they were before the colleges came into being. The two countries present the two opposite extremes: England, of the colleges predominating over the university; Germany, of the universities crushing out the colleges.

The English college is an incorporated association presided over by a head master, sometimes called a dean and sometimes a president, who lives in a building with other masters, or tutors, fellows and scholars. The college holds separate endowments, is provided with a separate library and chapel, usually occupies a walled inclosure, and has a life of its own in diametrical contrast to the burgher life of professors and students in a German university. We see growing up in our own country something of the same kind in the development of the chapter houses of the Greek letter fraternities. It is conceivable that these may grow in size and be richly endowed as homes for students by wealthy alumni, that graduates may linger to pursue further studies or to assist the younger members, that a few may choose to remain permanently on the small income that might be accorded them, and that thus, in a century or less, an institution like the University of Rochester, which has no dormitories, might consist of a group of almost autonomous colleges similar to those at Oxford.

Such results had been attained in England when New England began to be colonized. Before 1648 no less than 90 university graduates had immigrated to New England, of whom three fourths came from Cambridge and one fourth from Oxford. They brought the leaven of their colleges to the New World. These men believed loyally in the higher learning. They wished to plant universities and colleges in America. But the college was more easily produced than the university. It required, in the mind of an Oxford or a Cambridge man, first a building, then a head master, or president, then a few assistant masters or tutors, and the dream became a fact.

And thus the college was planted on our own soil. A citizen of Boston, writing to England in 1643, says: "After we had builded our houses, provided necessaries for our livelihood, reared convenient places for worship, and settled the civil government, one of the next things we longed for and looked after was to advance learning and to perpetuate it to posterity; dreading to leave an illiterate ministry to the churches, when our present ministers shall lie in the dust. And as we were thinking and consulting how to effect this great work, it pleased God to stir up the heart of one Mr Harvard (a godly gentleman and a lover of learning, then living among us) to give the one half of his estate (it being in all about £1700) towards the erecting of a college, and all his

library. After him another gave £300; others after them cast in more, and the public hand of the state added the rest." The people of the colony voted the sum of £400 "towards a school or college; whereof £200 shall be paid the next year, and £200 when the work is finished, and the next court to appoint where and what building."

Said Edward Everett, speaking of John Harvard at the dedication of his monument: "It was given to the venerated man whom we commemorate this day, first to strike the key-note in the character of this people; first to perceive with a prophet's foresight, and to promote with a princely liberality, considering his means, that connection with private munificence and public education which, well understood and pursued by others, has given to New England no small portion of her name and praise in the land."

Such was the beginning of the American college, an institution that was possible when an American university was not. What Harvard in its inception was, that, amplified, developed, enriched with new life and knowledge, the American college is. The conception of these pioneers was a school of liberal learning. The motive of founding colleges was "that the light of learning might not go out and the study of God's Word perish." Wherever New England men went that conception and that motive went also. All over our land, sometimes amid great hardships and at the cost of much sacrifice, the college has been planted. All the religious denominations have striven to surpass one another in being the first to build a college wherever there was room enough to crowd one in. Scores of them have been unwisely founded, unwisely placed, unwisely managed. Hundreds of them are to-day in a state of arrested development. The struggle to live lowers the tone of life and even death would often be a public gain. The worst is that in many of them the "light of learning" has gone out, or was never kindled. They assume the name "college" without being in any true sense schools of liberal learning. If professing that to be true which is not true is the essence of fraud, then many of these self-styled "colleges" are guilty of it. The utmost charity and courtesy could not go farther than to call them illusive expectations.

As in the thirteenth century the colleges of Europe developed out of the universities, so in the nineteenth century the colleges

of America are developing into universities. During this transition period we must expect confusion in the use of these two words. It may be worth while to make a rough classification of our institutions in the interest of clear ideas. We have at present four kinds of universities. The first may be called, as President Gilman has suggested, "collegiate universities". Harvard and Yale universities are examples of this type. They have become much more than colleges. They have schools of theology, law and medicine, in addition to the school of arts and sciences. They have approached the character of universities as including a group of colleges as well as in point of magnitude. The second kind is the "state university". The University of Virginia is the venerable patriarch of this type in this country. Thomas Jefferson, who planned it, wished to found a university as distinguished from a college. His model was the continental university of Europe. He even proposed to Washington the importation of the University of Geneva, then suppressed by the French Revolution, and its location at the national capital. This type of university has been adopted by many of our western states, as in Michigan, Wisconsin and California. It is unfortunate that the builders of colleges in the west have not grouped them around these centres as the college builders of the thirteenth century grouped theirs about Oxford and Cambridge. The third kind may be called the "independent university". This is an American phenomenon, a token and a product of the largeness of American conceptions and the munificence of American liberality. Of this type are Cornell, Lehigh, Johns Hopkins and Clark universities, the creations of men who have wished to benefit mankind and have possessed the resources to execute magnificent schemes elaborated by themselves or others. The fourth kind is the "supervisory university", an organization of scholarly and wise men who do not teach, who hold no endowments, but superintend the higher educational work of an extended area, such as the University of the State of New York.

In this state, as in New England, the English conceptions of a college and a university prevailed. Here also the college preceded the university. King's College, in the city of New York was incorporated in 1754, and remained the only college in the state until 1795, when Union College was founded. In 1784 King's College became Columbia College, which has since been

taken as a standard in determining the rights and privileges conferred upon other colleges in the state. In the matter of degrees the board of trustees was empowered to grant such as "are usually granted by any or either of the universities of England."

When, in 1784, the Revolutionary war had almost destroyed King's College, legislative intervention seemed necessary to continue its existence. Accordingly, a new corporation was created and termed "The Regents of the University of the State of New York", and in this body the corporate rights of King's College were vested. Three years later, under its new name of Columbia College, it was provided with a separate board of trustees and a new law perpetuated the University, consisting of 21 regents, authorized to visit and inspect all the colleges, academies and schools, to confer degrees above that of master of arts, and to incorporate colleges and academies. Thus came into being our supervisory university and through it our local colleges.

In the state of New York the legal answer to the question, What constitutes a college? is, Any school of learning which the regents may choose to incorporate as such. When created, the corporation "shall have perpetual succession, and enjoy all the corporate rights and privileges enjoyed by Columbia College". Unfortunately for the clearness of language, several colleges thus created have been incorporated under the title "university". The most of them, however, remain faithful to the idea of a college in reality if not in name.

The regents prescribe from time to time the "requisites and conditions" for the incorporation of a college. At present these "requisites and conditions" for the incorporation of a "literary" college are: (1) that suitable buildings for the use of the college shall have been provided, or the funds for their erection secured; and (2) that funds, to the amount of $100,000, shall have been secured for endowment and properly invested. For the incorporation of a "medical" college there is only one condition, the raising of $50,000. Nothing is said of the intellectual or scholastic qualifications of the corporation or faculty to conduct the college and employ its franchises in a manner befitting an institution enjoying all the rights and privileges of Columbia College. There may be a marked difference, therefore, between a "college" by legal definition and a "college" in the historical sense.

2. What institutions should have power to grant degrees? In all the countries of Europe the granting of degrees, with the exception of those in theology, is a function of universities only. In the United States it is a right possessed by all the legally constituted colleges. The reason of this is evident. We were able to create colleges before we could create universities and, as substitutes, the colleges were empowered to grant degrees. It is a break in the traditions of the world occasioned and perhaps justified by the peculiar circumstances of our institutional beginnings. This policy has led to results which have elicited foreign criticism and an undervaluation of American degrees not always deserved. An English writer says: "In the United States of America the sale of degrees is maintained to the present day. There are unchartered bodies granting these titles with and without prior examination. There are chartered institutions only too happy to sell spoilt parchment at about $60 the foot, and such venal bodies are not rare, but are to be found in large numbers scattered over the states of the Union. It must be understood that, daring as is this academical prostitution, it is not now carried on without some care and pretense of probity. Impelled by the example of other countries, and by the bad odor in which United States degrees have been held by foreigners, the legislatures are endeavoring to abolish the evil, and many corporations have already forfeited their charters" ("Guide to Degrees" by Edwin Wooton, 1883, p. ix). We may say with pride that, owing to the supervision of the regents of the University, the state of New York has not deserved much of the censure that is nevertheless the common affliction of the whole country.

It is evident from the singularly frugal and judicious manner in which the regents have bestowed honorary degrees, that it is safer to intrust the degree-granting power to a supervisory university than to the colleges, which are liable to local and personal influences. When Dr Samuel Johnson was visiting the University of St Andrews, he asked a professor if the institution was richly endowed. "No," was the answer. "Then," said the Doctor, "you will have to get rich by degrees!" This policy has been attempted by many of our American colleges. All serious lovers of learning are desirous that scholastic honors should have but one price, scholarship and character. But it is not the universal rule to bestow them on this ground only. The motives

constantly urged by petitioners are the propping up of graduates or friends for or in conspicuous places, the reward of services in securing students or as incentives to such services, the flattering of wealthy persons and those with rich friends or relatives for the purpose of securing gifts of money and buildings, and in a few cases the rescue of damaged reputations! It is doubtful if some of these importunities would ever reach such a body as the regents, but presumptuous persons do not hesitate to press them upon trustees, presidents and faculties whom they believe themselves able to purchase, to seduce or to intimidate. As a matter of fact, it is doubtful if any college has, on the whole, been a gainer by granting degrees from these prudential motives. For every individual thus "doctored" many worthier ones are "sickened", and the aspirant for scholastic distinction being sufficiently "honored", he and his friends soon forget the inducements that were offered. But whether expedient or not, it is disgraceful to grant degrees from the considerations that have just been enumerated. It is the want of scholarly integrity displayed by American colleges that has made their degrees objects of suspicion, and often of contempt, both at home and abroad.

It would be difficult and perhaps impossible, to deprive the colleges of their prerogatives and reverse the whole current of American tradition, custom and legislation. Dismissing that as impracticable, several courses of action commend themselves as helpful in sustaining the dignity of American degrees. For brevity they may be thus summarized:

(1) Let the regents increase the "requisition and conditions" of incorporating colleges, as they have once done, so as to force all the colleges to approach as nearly as possible to the present standard and efficiency of Columbia College, whose rights and privileges they share as a charter prerogative.

(2) Let the regents watch closely the exercise of the degree granting power by the colleges and remonstrate with them publicly if any abuses are discovered, annulling their charters if any venality or fraud is detected.

(3) Let the colleges cease to confer honorary degrees which the members of their faculties or corporations do not possess, and especially those degrees which are conferred by some colleges and universities only after special study and examination, such as the degrees of master of arts and doctor of philosophy.

(4) Let the colleges strive to attain substantial uniformity in the requirements for admission and for the baccalaureate degree, in no case conferring it as a mere honor, so that at least one token shall remain by which the actual completion of a liberal course of study may be indicated.

Thus restricted, no great harm can come from the continuance of the American custom of permitting the separate colleges to grant degrees. But the question is a national one, and we shall never reach a final settlement of it until we have a national consensus upon the subject. When a board of regents of a national university has been created, whose duty shall be to do for the nation, in this particular, what our regents can do for the state of New York, a great advance will have been made. It is true that local educational needs may be different, but it is equally true that nothing is gained by assigning to the same degree a different value when we pass from one state to another. As the local and state banking systems have given place to a national system which makes a dollar uniform in value from Boston to San Francisco, so the time must come when a national university will give substantial uniformity to scholastic degrees throughout the whole country. Let the colleges continue to confer them, but let the conditions of conferring them be determined by the consensus of the learned in the whole nation.

It would be a more radical repudiation of the traditions of the scholastic world than any one has yet attempted to justify, if it were maintained that any institutions of lower grade than universities and colleges, or those of discreditable character, should be defended in the power to grant degrees. As the medical schools grant degrees in medicine, so also the theological schools, under proper conditions, might be allowed to grant degrees in theology. For this there would be European precedent. But we should certainly draw the line at mechanics' institutes, reading circles and all schools that do not have full college courses. A correspondent of unusual competence writes in a personal letter: "Every little while I unearth a new institution which helps to degrade our creditable colleges by diluting the average. Certainly New York state ought to stop chartering third and fourth rate colleges with all the powers of the oldest universities, and many who have studied the question believe that something should be done to restrict the degree-conferring power of institutions that have no substantial claim to such privileges."

It would be in questionable taste for a comparative stranger to mention by name and to criticise in public institutions with which he is but little acquainted. That unpleasant task is left to those who may feel justified in attempting it and competent to perform it with equity. But it is a safe conclusion that institutions not comprehended in the legal and historical definition of universities and colleges should not be permitted to grant degrees.

Discussion

Ex-Prin. George A. Bacon.—During a recent trip in the southern states I was told that a certain body of gentlemen in a certain state applied to the legislature to be incorporated as a university, and in some way succeeded in securing incorporation. They met and organized. They conferred what they considered suitable and adequate degrees on each one of themselves and adjourned *sine die*. They have not met again. There has been not a dollar of money secured, there has been no pretense of erecting buildings or obtaining a faculty, but they have still, if they see fit to meet again, the power to confer degrees. In the state of New York we are not so badly off, though here I believe there are more than forty institutions that have the right to confer degrees. I would not like to say how many, in my opinion, ought to have that right, because I might not give the same number that would occur to most of you.

It seems to me that the limitation suggested should be adopted at once; that is, no institution of learning should confer a degree for the securing of which it has no course and no faculty. In other words a college without a theological department should not confer the degree of D. D.; an institution without a department of law should not confer the degree of LL. D.; and an institution that can not in any way give a liberal education should not give the degree of B. A. That would eliminate a large element of the evil. Some institutions have adopted the plan of limiting the number of degrees, that is, they give but one honorary degree a year. Other institutions have resolutely refused to give any honorary degrees. Some of the institutions are giving the post-graduate degrees on examination only. It has seemed to me that there was an insidious evil likely to creep into that system. These examinations are private, yet many people know when a man of some position and influence makes application to the

institution for a degree on examination and presents himself to try the examination. Very likely the local community at home is aware that he is trying for it and it is quite a humiliation to send the man back without the degree. Consequently there is a very strong temptation on the part of the institution thus examining him, to look with too complacent eye upon his answers. I do not say that this has ever been done, but I feel sure that it might be. Those institutions that require a residence for all the degrees have a strong chance of vindication. We have in this country too much of the theory that everything should be open to every man. There are certain prizes that should be awarded to and secured by only the persevering. Of course if a boy is poor and can not go to college, we all pity him, and some of us pity him so much we are willing to give him a degree. But there may be another boy just as poor as he is, but more plucky, who will get to college and get his education, and we ought to honor him more than the poor boy who is less plucky. It would in some cases be considered a hardship, I suppose, if a man should not receive a degree except on residence, yet I believe that these institutions that are insisting on residence are justified in the eyes of their constituencies.

Mr Chancellor, this is a fruitful subject and one involving many difficulties. I deem my task to be simply that of formally opening the discussion. There are many men here wiser than myself who would like to speak on the subject, and to them I would therefore defer.

Pres. G. W. Samson.—I find the gentleman who read the paper expressing himself so admirably upon the special point, the grand difficulty, which has influenced the French for instance. When Charlemagne brought over Alcuin of Ireland who organized the colleges which grew into the French and German universities, the same difficulty we meet came up. He was determined that the son of a serf or mere laborer should have the same chance as the sons of nobles. In Tytler's Universal History are found the questions as to education rife in all former and subsequent ages. The work, as issued in six small volumes by the Harpers is an indispensable pocket companion, exhaustless for a life-study. The principle of Charlemagne has come out in the history of Guizot, who so succeeded in arranging French public instruction; so exceedingly interesting, Mr Chancellor, in the tracing of the

history of education in the state of New York. French education was thrown into a state of demoralization by the Revolution, and as Guizot shows in his Memoirs, there were at one time not less than three entirely distinct systems controlling education after it was dropped by the church, with the going down of the Bourbons. The first constituent assembly, led by Talleyrand, thought of reviving old Greece and Rome in education and politics. They ruled only one year. Then came Condorcet who emphasized the word *égalité*. He got up what was afterwards called an Academic Church. There was to be one fixed educational system, no more, no less; every boy should have an equal chance; but it proved a failure, since the aspiring genius could not tower at all. Antagonizing the system of Condorcet was that, as Guizot traces, of Daunou. The idea of *liberté*, perfect freedom ruled for a time. Any educational institution could teach what it pleased, and could give such degrees as it pleased. This system prevailed until Napoleon's strong hand, that of a master, gained sway. Just as he drew together with military genius the military forces, so with the same genius he drew together the faculties of science, letters, law and medicine. He organized the French University; with the idea, to which our Chancellor referred us last evening, as repressive and controlling. Napoleon could accomplish the needed end for a day, because for a day it was needed. The military power was needed everywhere; in education as much as anywhere else. During his 10 years of Imperial power, the university held arbitrary control of education, primary, secondary and university. When the Bourbons came back of course, this sway was in keeping with their character. But there were abuses of power which in 1828 led the Chamber of Deputies to break its rule. When in 1830, the banishment of Charles X, brought to the throne Louis Philippe as "Roi des Francais," King of the French, in place of hereditary monarchs taking the arbitrary title "Roi de France", King of France, and Guizot, the master statesman, was called to power, he saw the University idea must be modified; precisely as our Chancellor indicates that the University here must be modeled. The French colleges could not be arbitrarily controlled. They would not be put under a repressive system; just as our colleges will not be. Now, it is very suggestive to observe that Washington before Napoleon; and Jefferson after Napoleon had the university idea, but from different points of view; the

one seeking a model for national, the other of state education. We may overlook the distinction ruling these two men. For instance, I received a letter from one of the ablest educators of South Carolina, January 6, 1861. He says in it: "Not one-fifth of our people believe in this movement; and if on coming into power the new administration will let us alone, we will get the state back into the Union." As there is a metropolitan and a rural interest in New York state so there was and is in the south. All middle and upper Georgia, all middle and upper South Carolina, all middle and upper North Carolina, and all middle and upper Virginia are of a very different type from the lower counties; and have always been so. Here Jefferson and Washington differed; they sought the same end as Napoleon in France, but not through forced conformity. And yet Jefferson failed in his effort of having a university, which should control the whole educational system of the state, just as much as Washington failed to secure a national university. Guizot had the clear head to see the cause. He fell back upon the independent colleges, and secured a moral influence, mighty, because harmonizing religious and political differences. That was the man who so appreciated our Washington; and on this subject of education admired his character and aim. He has written of American policy as I think no other man has ever written.

Now I am sure that the paper has brought out a very important line of thought. But that any power in this country, national or state, is going to rule our colleges as authoritatives we may be assured will not come to pass; it could not under Washington for the nation; it could not under Jefferson in Virginia. The Chancellor says it will not in the state of New York; and it will not in the nation. It has not in France. You must elevate your colleges by moral influence on each as an independent power; but as advisory.

And now a single added remark. The Vice-Chancellor came and had a talk with me this morning. "Mr. Chancellor," said I "you have the right idea in this gathering. I have attended the meetings of the regents in years long past. What you want is this personal discussion. Bring out the men that are at the head of your institutions and let us compare notes. That is the way to learn to be teachers; from every one of his pupils a true teacher learns. The way to learn is to meet as we do to-day and be perfectly independent in our thought; compare notes; never

yield to any man your convictions, and so we will mount up together and make all our institutions what they should be. For some of these colleges — I thank my brother from St Lawrence county for the suggestion — are doing a noble work. They have not the opportunity we have in these great centres; they have not external facilities but they excel in mental energy and they are doing as grand a work as we. Guizot saw this fact all through France. With the prestige of his name and high position he sent out letters to more than 39,000 public teachers; suggesting methods and a curriculum to all, and asking suggestions. He received responses from nearly 14,000; for they were proud to be consulted. Therefore they were ready to fall into line like a citizen soldiery. They did not move because another said go, but because like the Grecian army at Thermopylæ, every one felt himself a man and acted for himself while he worked in line. I had no thought of this outburst. It comes spontaneously. It comes from deep study, from a comparison of the German, and of the French, and of our own history. Through Virginia, through the South and West I am sure these discussions — even in Mexico they have been inaugurated — are going to do a grand service for our institutions of learning; and that instead of repressing noble spirits that are at their tasks, you will find you have a grand army running through the nation; like the armies that gathered during our dire trial, when the institutions of the nation were at stake, but with a higher aim; that of George Peabody, whose success attests yours.

Warden B. B. Fairbairn.—I have listened of course with very great pleasure to the opening paper. But it appears to me that we are to be guided in a measure by the fitness of things quite as well as by the historical question. The colleges of this country, it appears to me, ought to bear a certain relation to the universities of the country. And it does appear that there is a general agreement, established by history, that the university is a teacher in the four faculties: philosophy, theology, medicine and law. The intention of the college is to prepare a person to enter the university, so that he can with profit to himself and comfort to the institution take in the instruction which the university affords him. That is the idea of a university in Germany. No doubt, what the gentleman said was true, that the university has suppressed the college, suppressed it more in name however

than in reality, not only in Germany, but also in France. The gymnasium is the institution which prepares the young man to go into the university in order to receive his technical, or professional education, in philosophy, law, medicine, or theology. And in France it is called the communal college or the lyceum. Take up the program of instruction that the minister of education in France issues annually, and you will find that it agrees almost exactly with the course of instruction in the American colleges. It begins further back. It takes more years for that reason than an American college does, but it proceeds to about the same point. It seems to arise out of common sense, that a person must attain a certain degree of culture, must have so disciplined the powers of his mind, that at a certain period he is able to enter upon a professional education, or rather receive, I should prefer to say, professional instruction. Education is the fashioning and disciplining of the mind, and that is what the communal college, the lyceum of France does, that is what the gymnasium of Germany does. On examining their program of instruction you will find it almost agrees with the course of instruction in an American college. This agrees also, it appears to me, with the nature of things, and indicates what a young man should attain before he can enter upon a professional education. He should have control of the powers of his mind, by a certain course of discipline. That used to be, certainly until within a few years, the general conception of a college in this country. Fitting a man to enter a theological seminary, or a medical college, or a law school, or a polytechnic school of engineering or on a course of scientific instruction; but the college was supposed to give the preliminary education which was to bring him up to the point, where this instruction could be received with success to himself, and comfort to the institution. That was the general conception of a college in this country; that was the general conception in France, and also the conception of a gymnasium in Germany. And our colleges go only as far as their lyceum and gymnasium go.

It appears to me this conception has of late been very much disturbed and upset by certain of the large colleges, Harvard, for instance, in New England, and Columbia College in this state, by bringing the course beyond that preliminary education which is necessary for the young man in order to enter on a course of instruction for his profession. The honored president of

Columbia College yesterday, informed us of a change in the course of instruction to meet a certain want. It seemed to be a feeling arising out of certain circumstances, that they had got beyond this general conception that has prevailed, of what a college ought to do. And the same seems to be true in Harvard college, so they are reducing the number of years to three for the bachelor's degree. But they have gone further back in the preliminary requirements; they require more in order to enter, so when a young man gets these three years in Harvard or Columbia, he has then reached a point where the colleges generally bring a man at the end of four years in order to give him a bachelor's degree. Three years of preparation and three years in college make six; the same as two years of preparation and four years in college, which would bring a man to precisely the same point, and at the same time.

Now, I think there has been a very clear notion in this country, as there has been in France and in Germany, of what a preliminary education ought to be. You have only to get the program of studies, in these two countries, of the gymnasium and of the lyceum, and compare it with the catalogue of the American college, and you will find that it is the same. Their course of instruction is preliminary to the entrance on a university course, on the study of a profession, viz.: of theology, of law, of medicine, and of philosophy or engineering, &c.

Prof. Edward F. Fagan. — In considering this question I do not think that it is of so much importance to find out "What constitutes a college", as to establish definitely what institutions should have power to grant degrees. I am of those who believe that when an institution applies to the University of the State of New York for a charter that the regents of the University are competent to distinguish as to the merits of the institution seeking the favor. But what appears to me an object of criticism is that such colleges are not sufficiently watched in the discharge of their functions after they have obtained a charter. I feel certain that it is within the province of the University to take away the charter from any college that does not keep up the standard of education promised by it at the time of incorporation. Changes are often effected in the faculties and boards of trustees of these institutions and through influence brought to bear upon members thereof young men, who have not finished the course of

studies laid down in the curriculum, may leave college during the junior year and follow a course of law or medicine at the university and after receiving the degree of M. D., or LL. B., go back to the college which they had left and claim the right of getting the degree of B. A. This in my judgment is a reprehensible practice. The young man who enters college should complete the course of studies prescribed therein and then apply himself to a professional course, if he desires so to do. Our colleges have a higher aim than this and they fall short of their purpose through the operation of such influences. Furthermore I claim that the granting of degrees to students who have been graduated a certain number of years, without fitting themselves for a profession is injudicious. There should be no such thing as conferring the degree of M. A., or Ph. D., upon anybody, be he ever so illustrious, unless he shall have complied with the regulations prescribed therefor by the University. As regards the degree of LL. D., I can see a plausible reason in conferring it upon a man who has had extensive judicial experience. He may be deemed worthy of the honor on account of the functions he has performed so long and so well. But it is an exceptional case. Where our colleges throw away testimonials of merit, scatter degrees, making M. A's. and Ph. D's., without due discrimination it brings such institutions into disrepute and belittles the honors which they have at their disposal. He who does not earn his spurs can not fully appreciate their value. Many young men are compelled to leave college in their sophomore or junior year through want of means. The University should make some provision or arrangement by which they could be afforded an opportunity of continuing their studies and passing the examinations in the senior department whenever they consider themselves fitted, so as to obtain their degrees through the proper channel. It is but justice to students who have gone through a college course and received a degree as evidence of their scholarship and character that such degree should bear on its face all the credit, all the luster and brilliancy of a genuine reward of merit. Bear with me a little longer while I touch upon the question as applied to our normal colleges. I consider them excellent institutions. They are supplying a long felt want in the pedagogic economy. But when it comes to pass that these institutions demand the right to confer the degree of B. A. and Ph. D., which I have heard

since my arrival on this floor a certain normal college within 150 miles of Albany is doing or has done, then I must protest emphatically against it. I do so in all earnestness. It is a disgrace to the University to allow such a thing to occur. I am assured that some of the management have asserted that in the space of two years or perhaps a little longer, they could cram into the brain of an ordinary student learning enough to qualify him for the reception of the degree of B. A., a process that requires in most of our advanced colleges at least four years. The claim is preposterous and should never have been listened to by either the regents or legislature. When degrees can be paraded without having been earned and entitle the possessor to the same consideration as a *bona fide* holder, then the parchment which students work so hard and so anxiously to gain becomes shorn of its honor and glory, and the degree is not worth the paper on which it is written or printed.

Prin. F. S. Capen.—I have been very much interested in this excellent paper of Dr Hill, and think you will all agree with me that it contains some very definite suggestions in the right direction. It is the province of this Convocation and other educational bodies, to crystallize public sentiment and to put it into such shape that our legislators can understand it. If we are to have any relief from the difficulties that surround us, it seems to me that we must get it through the law-making powers; but just so long as we disagree among ourselves, we shall get no aid from the legislature. I would like to make one or two suggestions which perhaps it would be well to have carried out. If we could have a committee, or somebody who would put into shape what we all believe, if we all believe anything, we could possibly bring about some results in this state and in other states. The results that have been brought about through the Department of Public Instruction, in realizing so much excellent law during the past two years, have been accomplished by crystallizing public sentiment upon those questions in the various educational bodies that gather through the year.

The degree of M. A., and the degree of Ph. D., ought to be granted only on examination, and only after the candidate has had a college course, and received his B. A. Those degrees, granted upon examination, may very properly be granted by those who conduct the examinations. But it occurs to me that perhaps

colleges could be relieved of some of the embarrassment, if something of this kind could be done: Let the question of conferring an honorary degree be taken into consideration by the faculty of one of our colleges; then let this faculty make a recommendation to one of the universities in the state of New York (perhaps confining it to a recommendation to *the* University of the State of New York), allowing that body to act as a sort of a senate upon the question. If, after due consideration, the candidate is found worthy of the degree, let the University bestow it.

I should like very much if the degree of bachelor of arts, or B. A., could be worn more by men who possess it. It is a fact that a great many men wear the M. A., who never saw the B. A., and I am always interested to know whether a man has the B. A., or whether he has been through college. Very few of our colleges now grant the degree of B. A. as an honorary degree.

I would like to say in answer to the last speaker that I know of no normal college in this state that grants the degree of M. A., or proposes to do it, and I should be very glad to have him tell us if he knows of any that does that thing.

Prin. George M. Smith.—It is with some diffidence that I rise to speak in this distinguished audience, but in talking this very question over a few days ago with a distinguished college man of this state, I asked him what the letters B. A., when found upon a man's name, meant. He answered me: "They mean that he has had some sort of a course in some sort of a school." I think that exactly hits the situation. Charters have been granted to colleges in all directions, with all sorts of faculties and all sorts of means of instruction. They have asked for all sorts of requirements for admission, and they have not adhered in all cases even to their own requirements. I know of one case. I am acquainted with two young men who attended a well-known school in New England. I know that neither of these young men had the mental capacity to acquire fitness for a college. I asked the teacher of that school whathe was going to do with those two young men. He said he was going to send them to the college of X. Y. Z., because they took anybody there. Right there, sir, in my opinion, is the key to this question. Shall our colleges be obliged to maintain their requirements? I have been told, sir, within a few hours, of this incident happening in the great state of New York this very summer: the president of a college invited a young man to enter his

institution. The young man said he had had but one year of Latin, and no geometry. The president told him that would be all right; they would enter him in full standing and give him four years to make it up in. Now sir, if we can put our fingers on that evil and remove it, we in the secondary schools can know more nearly where we are. It is not an uncommon thing for us to be told by our pupils, (and what secondary teacher is there here who has not experienced it?) when we urge them to attain a high standard of scholarship and make themselves really scholars, that the colleges do not ask for scholarship; that the colleges want students and will take them anyway. The regents of the University should use their influence to bring the scholarly sentiment of the state to such a pitch that the college shall be disgraced that does not insist upon at least its own requirements for admission.

I wish to make the suggestion that the regents shall require the colleges to report each year the number of students admitted on conditions, that we may have in the future some data for discussing this question.

Prof. Edward F. Fagan.—I rise to a question of privilege. I did not say that any normal college in the state of New York was seeking to confer the degree of M. A. I have been informed upon this floor by a gentleman, who is in a position to know, that a normal college in this state has asked the privilege of conferring the degree of B. A. upon its graduates and upon being remonstrated with the faculty, promised to increase the course to three years and to raise the standard of its studies a little higher than it is at the present time. Even in the face of such assurances, ladies and gentlemen of the Convocation, I maintain that it would be an injustice to our colleges to have such an institution, empowered to confer the degree of B. A., when its course is limited even to three years.

Prof. D. S. Martin.—I wish simply to say that I feel great interest in the suggestion made by Principal Capen concerning honorary degrees in all our institutions — that they should not be directly in the power of the colleges to confer, but rather should be referred or intrusted by them to the University of the State as the guiding and controlling body. Thus the degrees from the colleges would take the form rather of recommendations to the board of regents for an honor or privilege. It seems to me

that this is a very important suggestion, and that its adoption would be a great step in the right direction towards the unifying and elevating of the value of honorary degrees. I hope that some action in this direction may be taken by the Convocation.

Pres. William McAfee.—In regard to this question as to the length of the college course which has been referred to, if this Convocation proposes to recommend a change to so abbreviate it, as to eliminate a year from the regular college curriculum, it seems to me it will work a serious injustice to the academies of the state. We have heretofore considered that four years were necessary for a symmetrical college course in this country. Now, if one year is taken from that time, it is plain that certain studies must be omitted from what has been considered necessary and essential to complete the college course, or that another year's work must be put back on the secondary schools and academies. It is evident that these academies, with but few exceptions, are not prepared to do this work as well as the regular colleges of this state. The colleges have the faculties, they have the libraries, they have the apparatus and the endowments for doing the first year's college work, better than any of the academies I know of. I can not but think, sir, it will be very unwise to follow so hastily the lead of one or two prominent institutions in this country, that are but making experiments, and that this Convocation should not countenance the proposition to cut the regular college course down from four to three years.

Pres. G. Stanley Hall, *Clark University, Worcester, Mass.*—I rise, Mr Chancellor and members of the Convocation, to make merely one brief and modest suggestion. There are now 63 degrees of a more or less academic character conferred in this country. I think these degrees should not be treated as of the same value. Some of them are very recent in origin; some, as we all know, are very old. Besides that, in the very generally unsettled condition of our educational matters, which is peculiar not only to this country, but to others as well just now, which makes the present, as it seems to me, the most serious of any period that we have ever had in this country, there is quite certain to emerge one great distinction, viz.: that between college work, where discipline is the chief object, and university work, which must always culminate in research. Research is a very simple matter. It is simply getting to that point where

a free, fresh, independent look at the facts is taken without the medium of books. Now, in order to emphasize this distinction, and to occupy the real new university field that is almost certain to open up very rapidly within the next five or six years in this country, a body like this board of regents could at least do a work of the greatest service to young men, if it would specify or select one or two of the most valuable or the most venerable degrees and detail and enforce high requirements for them. If this body should begin by thus taking but one degree under its protection, leaving all the rest to be given as they now are for the present, a very promising beginning would be made.

The precedent of Germany and France has been referred to, and it is exactly in point; because there whenever the question of new degrees comes up, it is debated as seriously as of old what books should be admitted into the Bible canon, so sacred is the curriculum, and so serious are any changes in that country where every modification requires the curriculum to be discussed by the very best men in the country. I simply rise to ask whether it would not be practical for this board of regents, which is it seems to me almost constitutional in its powers, to take one or two of those degrees under its protection. I should prefer to see the Ph. D. chosen. It is the only degree which the university which I have the honor to represent confers. Choose a few degrees and lay down and enforce the requirements, and then later it may be practicable to do the same for other degrees.

Col. Weston Flint, *Statistician, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.*—I was rather amused the other day in Washington. The gentleman who has charge of the reports from colleges and universities came to me with a catalogue,—I will not say from what portion of the country it was,—having a list of the president, officers and teachers, etc. and at the end of one name in the faculty the cabalistic characters H. S. D. were appended. The question was raised as to what H. S. D. could mean. There were over 50 college degrees, but no one had heard of H. S. D. We looked it over carefully and after a while discovered it by the *a priori* method; we found that there was a high school in that institution and this teacher was a graduate of this high school department, and thus the manufactured degree was put in with all the importance of a D. D. or LL. D. and possibly with equal justice.

I was very much interested in President Hall's paper in regard to universities and colleges. There is one thing I would like to suggest, and it is a matter in which we are all interested for there seems to be a sort of university feeling in the air, an earnest spirit of progress in this country, and especially noticeable during the last few years. I was glad because some of the suggestions I have received from him in regard to higher education are of the kind that are of general interest; and one is in respect to this very subject before us to-day, in connection with the plans of studies in the different colleges. I have been at work getting together the degrees, course of studies, etc., of 115 of the principal colleges in this country. That will let us know just what are the conditions of securing degrees in these institutions. There seems to be a desire on the part of some of the professional schools to be placed under the university, simply to get the appearance of greater authority in conferring degrees. But there is a question that has troubled us a great deal and that is, whether this is a good policy or not. Here we have for instance a law or medical school granting its degrees. It is well known how little some of these degrees mean. (In Washington just now we have some college men trying to organize a university club, some of them were only law and medical students, but of course they all wanted to be counted as university men.) In an investigation a few years ago as to the medical schools it was found that only about $7\frac{9}{10}$ per cent of those presenting themselves for matriculation, were graduates of a college, many having not even a high school education. The law and theological schools were somewhat higher in the percentage of college men. The low grade of scholarship was the point that the medical men took into consideration. I met a man the other day, a physician from Kansas, and he stated that since the medical schools had so deteriorated in the West, the state institutions and the medical authorities of the state of Illinois had taken such energetic action in this matter, that a man going west from Illinois was looked upon with suspicion, as if he could not practice at home. If it were the rule in the state of New York to require a certain grade in matriculates in medical colleges it would be a good thing for the country.

The discussion of such questions as these and the action upon them by a body like this can do very much to remedy some of the present difficulties under which we labor, and this can be done

in this state because there is authority to prescribe rules as to degrees and the necessary scholarships leading to them in all your higher institutions of learning. What you do here in a thorough manner will be an example for other states to follow, until there shall be not only greater improvement, but a higher standard in all the professional schools as well as the other educational institutions of the whole country.

Pres. J. M. Taylor.— There are one or two points in connection with this subject I would like to suggest before the discussion is over. I think we ought to remember that degrees mean much more than they used to mean. I think it hardly fair to forget that there has been great progress on the part of the colleges within 25 years in regard to this matter. Twenty-five years ago the degree of M. A. at Harvard College meant that a man had been out of the college three years, had sustained a good moral character and had $5 to spend for the parchment. That's all it meant. Every one knows that to-day almost every strong college requires an examination for its M. A. degree, and there are very few colleges of any strength in the country that do not require residence as well. It is the same with the Ph. D. That certainly is marked progress in our colleges. The fact that confronts us, as was witnessed by the list of colleges read before the Convocation yesterday, is simply this: that a very large number of the colleges have the power of conferring these degrees, that are not using that power properly. There is a large number of colleges in this state that have not the facilities, they have not the faculties, they have no ability to give a broad college training, and yet they have the power to confer the degree of B. A., under the laws of the state of New York. To my mind it is a sad reflection upon the history of education in the state of New York, and it seems to me that in what was said by the Chancellor last night, in defining the privileges of the regents, the way is open for reform. I am glad to learn that we can lay the responsibility in the future so largely at the door of the regents of the University. It is very difficult to lay the responsibility upon the legislature. Everybody knows that there is not much to lay the responsibility upon when we come to speak of the legislature; but when we speak of the regents of the University, we have a definite body of men pledged to the educational interests of the state of New York. What is their power in this direction? This at least: that they

may not only state what institutions may confer degrees, but they may repeal the charters of such institutions. Now, Mr Chancellor, it seems to me that the great responsibility here in regard to degrees is laid upon the board of regents by this power the legislature has conferred upon them. It seems to me that it is the duty of the board of regents to repeal the charter of institution after institution in this state that is not doing college work, though it has the power of giving college degrees. I say, all honor to those institutions for not using that power! Let me give an illustration or two. I had an application within a few months for admission on certificates to Vassar College from an institution in this state. The laws of our college did not permit the privilege, but I was interested to look over the catalogue of this institution and I examined it with some degree of care. I found that it gave what used to be called a fair seminary education, and under its curriculum was printed this statement: that by the laws of the state of New York it had the power to confer all college degrees. Now, I do not say that any college degree has been conferred by that institution, but I do say that it is a disgrace to the educational status of the state of New York that such a seminary has power to confer the degree of B. A.

We received this year a student from a "university" in the state of New York. She graduated, I am told, at the head of her class in this university, and entered the freshman class of Vassar College with credit. I make no reflections upon the institution; I know nothing but good of its work; I know she came well prepared for the work of a college, but she graduated at the university. If they were honest enough not to give that girl a degree, they might *never* abuse the power; but is there any reason why the power of giving degrees should be put in their hands? It is sometimes a temptation to boards of trustees of these institutions. It seems to me simply fair that the board of regents should repeal the right of that institution to confer degrees.

There has been reference made on this floor to-day to a normal college of the state that gained from the legislature of the state the power to confer degrees. By what right? It seems to me it was not a creditable thing for the history of the state when the legislature undertook to grant that privilege to a normal college. Why? Because it does not give a college education; because when it has graduated its students they are just able to enter a good college in the state of New York.

Now, Mr Chancellor, with these facts before us, and it is not pleasanter for me to state them than it would be for any other gentleman on the floor, it seems to me with these facts before us, the way is open and clearly open, for the regents have the power, to repeal these privileges. Let them be repealed, and let it be insisted upon that the institutions of the state of New York that may grant degrees shall at least themselves possess a college equipment. I do not think much of the provision in the law that grants such a privilege to an institution with $100,000. $100,000 to a college is a mere bagatelle, as any man knows who knows anything of the equipment of a college. It is a mere nothing; a drop in the bucket. It seems to me the regents ought to raise that amount. No institution ought to be chartered in this state without at least half a million. That will make a very small college to begin with, but a college with some hope.

Mr Chancellor, I am transgressing the rules of the conference. I have simply made the two points I desired to make. The fact is, we are not so bad as we seem on paper, and we may be made much better by the repealing power of the regents.

Pres. S. C. Bartlett, *Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.*— Many of these questions have been discussed as matters of detail inside the state of New York. Therefore it is not in my province to enter upon them in detail but there is one thought that has been impressed upon me more and more strongly as I have sat here listening during the discussion, and that is the power of this board of regents in the whole matter of education. Firmly established in this greatest state of our country, and invested with such authority, it is the most powerful educational body in the United States, wielding a control larger and more efficient than that of any other educational organization in the land. Now, sir, as one from the outside, where we have no such means of influence or control, we look hopefully to this board of regents to exercise that power which they have, and interpose in this commotion and upheaval that has now come on in the work of fundamental and liberal education, and say: "Thus far, and no farther." And from every quarter of this country, men in prominent educational institutions will look with gratitude to this body for coming to their rescue and their relief. Now, in New England we have no such means of influence. We are, indeed, associated as a body of colleges, the oldest and many of the best institutions in the country.

We have a voluntary convocation of the faculties of those institutions, represented by their presidents, and one delegate annually elected from each college. We get together and confer. We listen and we hear the ideas of one and another. Possibly a recommendation will be handed in and discussed, and then we go home. No action is taken, no resolution is adopted, no policy determined. And every college does what it has a mind to do. It has even happened that one institution has persisted in a measure which was regarded by every other as highly injurious to the common cause of liberal education. We have no remedy. But this board of regents, with its legal authority, with all these colleges under it, and with the power of securing additional legislation, which undoubtedly you have, have it within their reach to set an example and fix a standard to which we shall look from all parts of the country with pleasure.

The question of degrees has been well considered by Dr Hill. I would suggest that the degree of B. A. be taken in hand, and definitely fixed, so that any college or institution that grants it in violation of the established standards and sentiment, shall be an institution that shall lose caste.

I have said, Mr Chancellor, all that I had in mind; for, as I suggested, it does not belong to me to enter into many of these details, but I look upon this institution and Convocation with great interest, when I feel what power there is in this body, and with profound respect upon these gentlemen here gathered this morning; they are here to do a noble work for the whole body of colleges and universities in the United States.

Prin. Jos. E. King.— This thought occurs to me: while sharing in the great complacency and congratulation that the University is lifted up within the last few years to a higher plane, so full of promise, and that there has been apparently this new investment of powers, why, to secure all those desirable and pleasant things, is it not a good time for us who belong to the Convocation and can appreciate what the regents have done, and what they possibly may do for us to proceed to agitate so that the board of regents may become a part of the organic structure of the state, as independent as the courts, instead of being a mere creature of the legislature, which may repeal them at the behest of some conspiring demagogues, perhaps under the recommendation of His Excellency, some Governor? Possibly, it is within the recollec-

tion of some of us, in the last few years that a state paper has recommended the repeal, the blotting out of the regents. And it is the more obvious that such a movement on the part of the people of the whole state is imperatively called for as from the very conservative, wise suggestion of our honored Chancellor, last evening, the board of regents doubtless means another advance, namely that they shall undertake to handle a system of colleges which have their tenure of existence by the same authority that the regents do. It is not likely that the regents would seriously abridge the powers of the little college. It may be little, but it has friends that love it; it may not have large revenues, but it is doing good work. There may perhaps be a great man sitting at the end of a bench, and the pupils may congratulate themselves if they are at the other end. They have as yet no great endowment, but that may come later. Doubtless the wise and honorable regents will move in a very conservative way. They will take no retroactive action probably. I admire and feel stirred by this progressive spirit, this movement towards unifying all the forces of higher education in the state. We shall feel presently that we all belong to one system. I am glad that the colleges are here in such force and speak so freely. We shall hope the secondary institutions, and the seminaries will not be counted out in the interests of the hour; but it seems to me that it is a good time for us to strike that the regents shall be made a part of the organic system of our state; put there to stay, so no demagogue can interfere with them. Then they may go on and do this grand, this desirable work, giving all the benefit of their wise counsels to the end of their days and the days of their successors.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

PROF. J. SCOTT CLARK, SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY

The first thing to be said about the teaching of English composition in our secondary schools, and in all our schools is, that it does not, at present, produce satisfactory results. In most of our schools neither a sufficient amount nor a fair proportion of time is given to the subject. It is no exaggeration to say that few secondary schools in this state give to the teaching of English

composition the time and the quantity and quality of the teaching given to the study of Latin. But even in those favored schools where ample time and effort are devoted to this branch, the results obtained are, as a rule, less satisfactory than those obtained by devoting an equal amount of attention to almost any other branch.

Many of our high school and academy graduates can answer glibly long lists of examination questions *about* writing, but when we test them by the only sound and practical standard — when we examine their original productions, we find a state of affairs that astonishes any thinking man who is not already familiar with "English as she is wrote" by our young men and maidens.

If any one doubts this statement, let him examine any set of essays produced by a group of young people holding regents' intermediate certificates.

In the fall of 1887, 65 young men and women, coming from about 40 different secondary schools, came under my instruction. Every one of them held either a diploma from a reputable secondary school or a regents' pass card in the college entrance studies or both. I throw out of the reckoning any who entered for special courses. The first essay required from this class was a simple description of some object or collection of objects that the writer had personally seen. The essays averaged about 600 words in length. The number of palpable errors in the set ranged from 87 down to 11. The average number of errors per essay was 48.

By palpable errors I do not mean failures to split rhetorical hairs: I mean violations of generally admitted and essential principles. Disputed cases and fine points are ignored. In the fall of '88, in a class of 90 members, each holding a diploma or pass cards, or both, the errors in a set of essays of similar length and character ranged from 74 down to eight; average number of errors per essay, 34. In the fall of '89, a class of 80 members, similarly accredited, showed an average of 28 errors in a similar set of essays. Some improvement: Yes, we were thankful for that; but think of it! On the very best showing, an average 28 errors per essay; that is, one palpable error to every 22 words!

Such is "English as she is wrote" by the graduates of our secondary schools. And (be it said to their discredit) many college graduates make hardly a better showing. If you doubt this assertion, ask some one of the honorable board of regents

whose fate it is to sit at an editorial desk and to revise the manuscript delivered to him by divers college graduates — men who are accurate in everything except the use of their mother tongue through the medium of the pen.

So much for the disease. Before attempting to suggest means of cure, let us examine its causes. To one of these we have already referred. In many, perhaps most of our secondary and primary schools the time devoted to English composition is utterly insufficient. Understand me, please; I do not say that too little time is given to grammar and rhetoric (using the latter word in its too common acceptation); time enough is certainly given to memorizing definitions of rare rhetorical figures and to attempts to parse unparsable idioms — to studying *about* writing. May an all-wise Providence, acting through a wise board of regents and school managers, hasten the day when there shall be less of all this. But the time given to actual practice and drill in putting the pupil's thoughts into words, is altogether insufficient. In many schools the essay work is placed entirely outside of the regular curriculum, and is regarded by both teacher and pupil as an extra — an incubus added to the burden of the week's work, to be removed outside of school hours in the speediest manner possible.

Thus the pupil learns, at the outset, to look upon essay writing as a "grind." He loses sympathy with the work to begin with, and every thoughtful teacher knows what that means. In order to secure results at all satisfactory, English composition must be placed in the curriculum as a regular feature of each week's or each day's work, just as much as the recitation in Latin or mathematics. And the composition work must be done, like any other work, inside of school hours. It must not become, in the pupil's eyes, a mere leech to rob him of the time that belongs to recreation.

The second cause of our partial failure in teaching English composition is found in the fact that the grade of teaching ability assigned to this branch is often comparatively low. In the eyes of too many school boards and superintendents, the teacher of English seems to rank about as the chaplain or clerk ranked in the eyes of the English noblemen of the fifteenth century. We must have college graduates, men and women of acute minds and thorough training, to teach Latin, Greek, and mathematics; but

as for looking over essays — why, anyone can do that. We have yet as teachers to learn and we have yet to impress upon school boards, that the ability to write clear, concise English sentences can be acquired only by constant practice, aided by the best teaching talent available.

The third cause of inefficiency in our English training is, that we begin too late. Some one has said that the proper time to begin the moral education of a child is about two years before its grandmother is born. So it may be said that the proper time to begin the English training in the secondary school is about eight years before the pupil enters the secondary school. Say that the average age of pupils entering our high schools is 15. Much may be done after that age by skilful management, but the best results can not generally be achieved. If a boy has reached the age of 15 and has seldom if ever tried to put his own ideas and experiences into written sentences, he will be like the half-cooled iron under the blacksmith's hammer. Take the same boy at seven or eight, and you may mold his powers of expression almost at will. For the teacher who takes the boy at 15 must generally counteract the influence of years of home training. We all know that the home is either the best or the worst school for teaching the mother tongue. If every child in this broad land might hear at his home only good English, and might read only well-written books, all the teachers of English composition might be discharged to-morrow, and you might be spared the ordeal of listening to this paper. But alas! such home surroundings are as rare as they are helpful. We must take the boy as he is, not as he ought to be; and if we would teach him to express himself well, we must begin before his character begins to crystallize.

Fourth, as already hinted, much of the early training in English composition is derived from the books that are read. Emerson says that every college ought to have a professor of books. Let us go farther, and say that every teacher in every primary and secondary school should be a teacher of books. In these days, when so much of our crime can be directly traced to the influence of pernicious literature, it is not only the privilege — it is the solemn duty of every teacher employed by the state to look carefully after the reading of those under his care. To do this, the teacher must be abreast of the times. He must know, not only what books boys and girls *ought* to read, but what good books

they *will* read if introduced to them. And right here is one of greatest needs and one of the greatest opportunities of the hour. Let every teacher who would come to the front inform himself concerning the most interesting and most helpful books for young people; let him take advantage of the numberless helps and the cheap editions of standard works; let him resurrect that old school district library; let him brush away the cobwebs, and, by begging, giving entertainments, and every legitimate means, let him fill the shelves with bright wholesome volumes; let him take pains to put into the hands of every pupil some good book that he *will* read; let him cultivate in his pupils the habit of reading regularly; let him question them, now and then, about their reading, even if the hours sacred to "the three R's" be slightly infringed upon thereby. Ask Johnny to tell you what he has been reading about lately even if there is not time enough left for him to tell you all about the straits of Terra del Fuego or to parse every "co-ordinating relative clause abridged or reduced to its predicate adjectives".

Follow out such lines as these, and not only will your pupils learn to write better English but they will rise up in after years and call you blessed.

The fifth cause of inefficiency is due to unwarranted assumptions by the teacher at the outset. When a young man enters college, and too often when he enters the secondary school, he is supposed to be familiar with the elements of English composition, such as spelling, punctuation, and the like, and the teacher often proceeds on this assumption. He does not test the pupil's practical knowledge of the elements too rigidly. It might involve returning him to the lower school or an unpleasant amount of elementary drill on the teacher's part. The result is much like that obtained by a bridge-builder who should assume that the tops of certain old posts projecting above the water afforded a sufficient foundation to sustain a new bridge. Not long since, the instructor in English composition in one of our most famous New England colleges said to a friend: "I like your method, but you aim at more elementary instruction than I attempt to give." A few months later I saw a newspaper letter written from Germany by a recent graduate of that college, an honor man of his class. Taking this letter even after it had passed through the revising

hands of the editor, it is mild language to say that it was "fearfully and wonderfully made." Evidently, neither his college instructor nor any other instructor had ever aimed at the "elementary instruction" of that young man in English composition

We must be more honest toward our pupils and toward ourselves. We must either say to a pupil coming to us from a lower school, "You are not prepared in English and you must go back to the lower school and prepare", or, if we admit him, we must take him just as he is; we must learn and we must fully acknowledge his weaknesses, and we must begin our structure down on the bed-rock, even if it does compel us to "aim at elementary instruction".

And right here is where we call upon the secondary schools for more thorough work. As a matter of necessity, almost, the colleges of this state admit students on the regents' pass cards. But the regents' pass card in rhetoric does not mean what it ought to mean. It does not mean as a rule, that the holder can write a page of commercial note and punctuate and capitalize it correctly. There is hardly a successful English teacher in our colleges who is not compelled to do, with every successive freshman class, work that should have been done in the primary or at least in the secondary school. Most holders of pass cards in rhetoric have a *theoretical* knowledge of English composition; but they fail in practical application. I have in mind a young lady of good natural ability holding one of these cards. If asked about the form of a simple declarative English sentence, she would have said, "Begin with a capital and close with a period;" but her first freshman essay was written in the beautiful old Greek cursive style; it flowed on blissfully, page after page, unmarred by any such obstructions as periods, capitals, or paragraph breaks.

A word here about punctuation. Some teachers have openly declared, and many more seem tacitly to believe that punctuation is such an unsettled subject that it can not successfully be taught. We are told that the authorities disagree — that there are no settled principles, etc. With this sentiment I take positive issue. I maintain that the fundamental principles of punctuation are well established; that they are all-important, and that they may be taught successfully. Punctuation is like pronunciation; a few slight disagreements between the authorities afford an excuse for a vast

amount of mental laziness. But who are the authorities? Shall we go to some text-book on grammar or rhetoric to determine how to use periods and commas? By no means. Text-books on punctuation are valueless except in so far as they interpret, fairly and plainly, the best modern usage. For, as in pronunciation, the best modern usage is the only true criterion.

Take any 10 of our leading periodicals; take the *Nation*, the *Forum*, the *Atlantic*, the *Century*, the *North American Review*, the *Popular Science Monthly*, *Harper's*, *Scribner's*, and the like. What do you find? In all these periodicals, simple declarative sentences begin with capitals and close with periods; in all, the subject-matter is grouped into logical paragraphs; in all, a formal enumeration of particulars is preceded by a colon. In the *essentials* of punctuation they substantially agree; with non-essentials the teacher need not concern himself. I weigh my words when I say, if the pupils in our secondary schools (and colleges) should learn practically to apply simply those principles of punctuation in which our best periodicals agree, the manuscript produced by these pupils would be improved in form at least 50 per cent.

But, given sufficient time and teaching talent; given an early beginning and good reading; given a thorough knowledge of the simplest elements; the next question is, what line of work can the pupil follow out most advantageously? At present, what are known as "language lessons" seem to be very popular among our grammar school teachers. A school superintendent of long experience recently said to me that he did not believe in much essay writing. He preferred the various "language lessons", about which he proceeded to theorize most eloquently. Verily, if the results obtained from these "language lessons" corresponded to the great expectations cherished by their upholders, the present rising generation ought to write far better English than any of its predecessors. But are these expectations realized? Right here a little observation is of more value than a great deal of theorizing. For 17 years, I have carefully watched the graduates of two secondary schools; one a high school, the other a seminary. Both stand very high in the regents' reports and in the estimation of the public. The seminary pupils come mostly from district schools. They have not, as a rule, heard much about "language lessons", but most of them begin to write compositions before they reached their teens; and during their three

years seminary course they have each written from 15 to 20 essays.

On the other hand are the high school graduates. They have entered the high school from a set of carefully graded grammar schools. They are the product of a vast machine, which grinds out, every year, so many holders of regents' preliminary certificates. In their grammar school experience they have been showered so to speak with "language lessons", but they have seldom if ever attempted to put their own ideas and experiences upon paper without help from the teacher. In the high school course they have had a fair amount of text-book work in rhetoric and English literature, but havewritten very few essays.

Now for the results: As a rule the graduates from both these schools enter college well prepared in Greek, Latin, and mathematics. If there be any difference, it is slightly in favor of the high school; but during every year of the 17 in which I have studied these results, and in almost every individual case, the seminary graduates have far excelled the high school graduates in a practical working knowledge of the art of English composition. I plead, therefore, for less of these modern improvements called "language lessons" and more old-fashioned essay writing. I know we shall be told that the child of 12 years has no ideas of his own, and that therefore it is absurd to require him to write an original composition. We shall be told that such requirements lead to conscious or unconscious plagiarism, to false standards of judgment, &c. These are plausible objections. If the pupil is to be left entirely to himself; if he be allowed to select his own subject without limitation and to handle it in his own way, with no supervision by the teacher, then the results will generally be bad. But we must bear in mind that, in teaching English composition, a *pre*view is of even more importance then a review of the pupil's work.

And this brings us to the sixth cause of failure. We have not given sufficient oversight to the selection of essay subjects. Two methods of selection are common, and both are bad. One is to permit every member of a class to choose for himself. The result is that he either plagiarizes or else he presents a set of dreary platitudes on some over-broad, expository theme, all the while blissfully unconscious that he is not presenting original thought.

The other common method is to assign to an entire class the same particular theme. This results in a squabble over the ency-

clopedias and other available books of reference, in more or less borrowing by one pupil from another, and in a dreary sameness that will give mental dyspepsia to the most buoyant-minded teacher, if he revise the entire set of essays conscientiously.

Make a list of the essay themes used during the last year in any academy in this state, and the result will be very suggestive. I base my statement on direct and careful observation when I say that at least nine out of every 10 of these are abstract subjects. We find such titles as Pride, Ambition, Happiness, Education, Earth's benefactors, Progress, &c. In a set of high school prize essays recently submitted to my decision, the titles read as follows; Memory, Drifting, Jack and Jill, Does death end all?

In essays on such themes as these we are told that the city "rose like a phœnix from its ashes"; that the heroine is as "fair as a lily" or "as gentle as a lamb." With these writers a man is not born, he is "ushered into existence"; he does not die, he is "launched into eternity." In other words, the pupil acquires the habit of reciting mere platitudes and truisms — glittering generalities, taken unconsciously at second hand, all the while deceiving himself with the idea that he is writing an original essay. The result is bad in every way. False standards of taste are acquired, and bad habits become fixed. The pupil deceives himself and disgusts his intelligent readers. So long as our high school pupils are permitted to deal in these high-sounding abstractions, those of them who graduate into newspaper offices will continue habitually to call every fire "the devouring element", every bad accident "a frightful catastrophe", every house a "family mansion", and so on *ad nauseam*.

I believe that the use of such abstract subjects should be positively forbidden, not only in our secondary schools but in at least the first two years of the college course. I doubt whether the ordinary man under 25 can profitably indulge in original exposition or in abstract theorizing. He will generally write either what is new and not true or, more probably, what is true and not new. The innate desire to do big things is as common among our youth as it is disastrous. The same spirit that prompts one boy to buy a cigar, or a cane and a silk hat, and to promenade the street in "manly" fashion, prompts his more serious fellow to choose for the theme of his high school essay the Pleasures of hope, the

Immortality of the soul, or the Theory of evolution. Against this false ambition the wise teacher will set his face like a flint. He will insist that the pupil learn to do little things well instead of doing big things miserably.

Moreover, if the pupil be allowed to choose any theme he please, his natural fondness for high-sounding themes will cause him to scatter his thoughts — to write without point. Far too many of the essays produced in our schools are what may be called *shotgun essays*. They hit everywhere in general and nowhere in particular. The pupil must learn to have a point for every essay and to stick to it. He must learn to use a rhetorical rifle instead of a shotgun.

What, then, shall our pupils write about? One class of subjects is just now coming into general vogue, especially among our colleges in entrance examinations. I refer to the prescription, by college faculties, of a list of books, from some one of which the essay theme is to be taken. It seems to me that the results obtained from this plan may be either very good or very bad. If the pupil be required simply to tell the story of the book in his own language, the result will be good. This method is admirably adapted to primary schools, but is hardly up to the dignity of high school graduates. If the pupil be required to confine himself closely to an analysis of the different characters in some work of fiction, illustrating each by apt quotations, the result may be excellent; but if he be simply turned loose with the book in his hands, and be required merely to write *about* the book, the chances are that he will launch off into an attempt at abstract criticism that is beyond his years and his ability. He will flounder about in too deep water, and the result will have all the bad characteristics already pointed out as belonging to most essays on abstract subjects.

Experience proves that four kinds of composition are thoroughly practicable for our secondary schools.

First, for the lower secondary grades and for the higher primary grades, there is the very helpful practice of paraphrasing standard prose or verse. In his admirable monograph on "English in the preparatory schools," Mr Ernest W. Huffcut says: "The first thing to be learned in teaching English composition is, that there is no known process whereby a teacher can draw out of a pupil's mind what is not in his mind. In other words, the

requirements must be adapted to the experiences and attainments of the pupils." And it is because the assignment of a piece of standard prose or verse for a paraphrase puts into the mind of the pupil something to write *about*, that this form of composition is so well suited to beginners. To quote again from Mr Huffcut, "Suppose the teacher puts into the hands of a bright pupil Motley's masterly account of the siege of Leyden, and asks him to relate the same incidents in his own language and with somewhat less of detail. What is the result? The boy becomes intensely interested in the story, learns, perhaps for the first time, that history is more fascinating than fiction, is eager to reproduce the story, and does so with good and useful results. Nor is this all. He has probably dipped into other portions of the story of the 'Dutch Republic,' and is eager to paraphrase some other interesting chapter." And again, "Suppose that, instead of giving the subject 'Tennyson's poetry,' the teacher asks a class of bright girls to make a metaphrase of 'The Princess.' The result will be that the girls will read one poem of Tennyson's instead of reading some article *about* Tennyson, will invariably be charmed by the poem, and will tell the story in natural and wholesome prose."

Second, description. The pupil can learn to describe, in clear, simple language, some object or collection of objects that he has personally seen. He can and will learn to give a clear idea of the shape, size, and relative position of the object described; he can learn to make his pen-picture vivid by noting minutely the exact appearance at a given moment in color, attitude, action, &c. All this supposes, of course, the continual oversight of a capable teacher. The simpler the subject, the better the description. Of 200 descriptive essays received from our last freshman class at Syracuse, the best was a picture of an evening scene in the living-room of the writer's home; the poorest was an *attempt* to describe Niagara Falls.

The third kind of composition appropriate to our secondary schools is narration. The pupil can learn to record, clearly and logically, his own simple experiences, putting each in its proper order and arranging all to a climax. By judicious suggestions from his teacher, now and then, he will learn to draw upon his imagination so as to make out of very simple, homely experiences a plausible and interesting story.

Fourth, argumentation. This is more difficult than description or narration and should be reserved, as a rule, for the more advanced pupils; yet even the boy of 12 can learn to tell forcibly on paper why he thinks base-ball preferable to tennis, winter superior to summer, and the like. For the more mature pupils, careful and continuous drill in argumentation is simply invaluable. This is an age when the world is ruled by the pen through the press. Arguments are more and more to take the place of armaments; and the citizen who can put into clear, forcible language his reasons for the faith that is in him on any subject, is to be more and more the man of power. And if he learn to do this well on paper, he will have little trouble in acquitting himself well in so-called extempore debate. For there is no real extempore speaking worth listening to. Dr Lyman Beecher, when asked by a callow theological student how long it had taken him to prepare one of his ringing extempore speeches, replied, "Forty years, young man, forty years!" Poor extempore speaking is due, generally, to poor confused thinking. Let the high school pupil learn to state his reasons clearly and logically in repeated argumentative essays, and when, in later days, he rises in the forum among his peers, he can state his reasons so that they will be felt and heeded.

But before any essay is begun, the teacher must not only prescribe the subject in a general way, ruling out abstract and too profound themes; he must not only see that the pupil knows how to make his description vivid, his narration interesting, and his argument logical; he must do something more. He must teach the pupil how best to arrange the matter in hand. I maintain that it is as unwise for a young writer to attempt to build an essay without first making at least a simple frame-work, as it would be for a carpenter to attempt to build a wooden house without first erecting a frame. Before we can have clear, continuous thinking we must have clear arrangement. If the boy is to describe a building, he must be taught to note the prominent features first; to describe the exterior before the interior; to give the size, shape, and material before he takes up the style of finishing and furnishing. If a girl is to narrate the experiences of her vacation trip to the home of a friend, she must be taught to arrange the events in natural order and to make each lead up smoothly to the next. If the theme be argumentative, the writer

must be taught to arrange his points logically and to avoid the most common forms of fallacy. Years of experience in this kind of work have convinced me that a five minutes' *pre*view, in suggestions about arrangement, etc., is worth half an hour's *re*view of an essay after it is written.

But the review must not be neglected. There is much difference of opinion as to how far the ordinary pupil, during a school course, can be made so to imbibe the principles of good writing that he will apply them unconsciously as a part of his mental machinery. But all will agree that the ordinary pupil can acquire the ability to revise and correct his own manuscript. He may violate many essential principles of good form and style in the first draft of his essay; but if he learn to prune and correct what he has already written, he has made a great acquisition. All agree that the ideal method of handling school compositions is for the teacher to have a personal interview with every pupil over every essay, pointing out each error and waiting for the pupil to correct it; but this is obviously impossible in most schools. We can hardly be expected to have either time or teaching force sufficient to handle the essays in this way. Results almost equally good, however, are obtained by writing in the margin of every essay the numbers, respectively, of the principles violated, and then requiring the pupil to apply these principles, thus correcting his own essay, and by afterward making the review of the revised essays a general class exercise.

It is a pleasure to be able to say that right along this line of essay revision there are very hopeful signs of progress. At the annual meeting of the Associated Academic Principals of New York, held in December, 1888, after a full discussion, it was advised by resolution that some system of pointing out to the pupil the fundamental principles violated in his essays, leaving him to do his own thinking by applying these principles and correcting his own errors, should be generally adopted. Shortly afterward, the committee of the Massachusetts Teacher's Association, in their now famous report, declared: "Any method is radically wrong that does not compel the pupil to give to the consideration and correction of his mistakes, an amount of time and effort proportionate to the labor of the teacher in discovering and pointing them out." And again; mistakes should never be fully

corrected upon the pupil's manuscript. It is only necessary to indicate the character of the errors, with an occasional hint as to the method of correction. The pupil should never be relieved from the necessity of thinking, but his thoughts should be so directed as to enable him to avoid fruitless effort and a discouraging loss of time.

I have stated what appear to me to be eight reasons for the unsatisfactory results of our training in English composition. The ninth and last is the weightiest of all because it includes or implies nearly all the others. It is this: We have regarded English composition too much as a science and too little as an art. I contend that English composition is primarily an art, just as much as painting or piano-playing is an art. True, it rests, like all other arts, upon a few scientific principles, which must be thoroughly mastered. But the mastery of these principles alone will never make one proficient in the art of English composition. No man can become a painter merely by studying books *about* painting or looking at fine pictures. No young lady ever became a skilful pianist simply by reading about piano-playing or watching others play. The only way to learn to paint is to paint; the only way to learn to play is to play, and the only way to learn to write is to write and to write repeatedly for years. In order to become proficient as a pianist, we expect a young lady to practice faithfully three or four hours a day, 10 months in the year, for seven years; and she must subject her playing to the criticism of a competent instructor at least twice a week during that time. All this, to acquire the mastery of a mere machine, a combination of wood and brass and iron, the mere work of human hands. How many young men or women do you know who have ever given one-tenth of that amount of faithful practice in learning to play upon this divine instrument of language — this subtle agent so closely linked to our immortal part? Is it any wonder that good pianists are common and good writers rare? The wonder is rather that our English is not worse than it is. The young lady to whom reference has been made, who was well informed in the theory of English composition and yet wrote her first freshman essay with a blissful disregard of punctuation, capitalization, and paragraph breaks, illustrates the case perfectly. She knew the science well; about the art of English composition she knew nothing at all.

What, then, are the needs of the case? In diagnosing the ailment we have almost necessarily suggested means of cure. Permit me, finally, to state them in more concise form.

I. As teachers and school managers, we must give to English composition more of the regular school hours. We must cause the pupil to look upon his composition work as a part of the regular routine of the week, as much as his mathematics. We must give him time to do this work inside of schools hours, and we must not make the essay work a leech upon the recreation time of either pupil or teacher.

II. School boards and superintendents must gain a higher conception of the dignity of the study of English composition. They must be willing to pay for a higher grade of talent in teaching our youth to use the mother tongue.

III. We must begin before the faculties of the pupils begin to harden like his fingers.

IV. We as teachers must give more care to the guidance of the general reading of our pupils. We must know what books are both helpful and attractive, and we must see that such books, in some way, go into our pupils hands. We must, by skilful questioning, in school hours and out, teach them to read regularly and to think about what they read.

V. When any pupil comes for the first time under our charge, we must not assume that he has acquired a degree of proficiency unwarranted by the facts. We must be honest to him and to ourselves. Either we must say to the pupil, "You are not qualified to come here and must wait until you are qualified before coming" or we must take him just as he is; we must not attempt to build the upper story of a house before the foundation is laid.

VI. We must guide the pupil in the selection of his themes. We must see that his essay subjects are suitable in kind and in degree of simplicity.

VII. We must guide the pupil in the arrangement of his materials. We must teach him the value of a good outline, and must see that he acquires the habit of classifying his thoughts in good order.

VIII. In revising an essay, we must leave the pupil to do his own thinking, we must merely suggest the principles violated and must require the pupil to correct his own errors by applying the principles suggested.

IX. We must, from first to last, look upon English composition more as an art than a science — as a matter of continual practice rather than one of definition and theory. And we must remember that this view means for the teacher endless patience, long-suffering and hard work.

A high school principal, and one of the most thoughtful members of this Convocation, said to me last year, "I have made up my mind, after long and careful observation, that the secret of success in teaching English composition is the ability to be careful about small things." Yes, that's it. It is these small things, carefully handled, that make all the difference between a classic and a botch, between literature and mere words, between a masterpiece and a daub. Some small paintings have brought very large prices. We who have entered upon the special work of teaching English composition may as well realize, at the outset, that we have started upon no holiday excursion. But if we can have the patience and the skill to do these small things well, we shall yet see great results.

Discussion

Prin. G. Wight, *Cooperstown Union School; remarks read by Prin. N. N. Bull.*—The question here to be solved by the secondary schools is not simply how successfully to teach English composition as a subject extra or incidental, but how to do it and at the same time to do justice to all or some of several other subjects usually regarded as incidentals, such as reading, penmanship, hygiene, drawing, music, calesthenics, declamation, and current topics. In view of this it is necessary to consider the claims of these other subjects also.

If all these so-called incidentals are to be regarded as of equal importance in the high school or academy, and so essential as to take precedence, for a time at least, of most other branches in the usual curriculum of such schools, they may be made to comprise the entire work of the first two years. This, it is evident, is not to be thought of. For my own part, I have not so far forgotten the aspirations of my youth as to think that the R's, even if supplemented by a fourth R, rhetoric, are sufficient for a scheme of secondary education; but I only urge that at least reading, writing, and practical rhetoric, or composition, have a fair chance in such a scheme, and be enforced and encouraged by the efficient dispensation of the Regents' office. At present, by the substitu-

tion of languages, a young man may obtain the senior academic certificate or the college-entrance diploma without rhetoric, and thus he may enter college lacking the very thing he most needs, and is least likely to get after reaching college.

If, on the other hand, all the subjects enumerated are to be in some slight manner recognized, and some little time given to each once a week, or even less frequently, the results will be so meager that nothing valuable will be realized with any of them.

Somewhere between these extremes a golden mean must be ound. It would seem that the best solution of the matter might be in the selection of only three of these incidental subjects at most, the ones generally recognized as of the greatest utility, and to allow them respectable places in the regular course of study, the remaining ones being either wholly disregarded, or, as in the case of hygiene and declamation, recognized to the pitiable extent of a brief weekly reading for the former and a crude performance once a term for the latter.

Teachers, of course, would not be agreed as to which three of these subjects should be selected. Doubtless all could find one among them to which they would respectively assign a place among the regular studies of the curriculum, even if it excluded some study commonly recognized in such course.

It will be a surprise to many to know that so important a science as astronomy is not taught in one of our best city high schools. It is not readily seen by what process of reasoning a study of so great interest, and so essential to general enlightenment, is withheld from the academic student's acquaintance. Let it be granted that the knowledge likely to be acquired in it will not be broad or deep. This is true of every science taught in the schools. The vagueness of ideas an academic graduate sometimes reveals on a given subject ought not to weigh greatly against the general pursuit. These unaccountable deficiencies come under the observation of every instructor, in the colleges no less than in the secondary schools. It is, indeed, discouraging to have a student of more than average intelligence, after a respectable course in astronomy, define right ascension as "distance eastward from Greenwich"; or to have another, when required in a regents' examination to locate the Pleiades, say, "they are right up over Mount Vision". I am myself of the belief that to English composition there

should be added to complete the proposed trio of most important incidental studies, reading and penmanship. It is of common observation that the best read student is often the worst reader, and that the man who leads his class writes a wretched hand. I would have reading and penmanship placed in the lists for graduating under the regents of the University, and would make them necessary for any kind of a diploma. I would have the examinations in these subjects conducted by experts sent out by the regents.

That at present examinations in reading and penmanship are required as a condition for receiving the junior academic certificate signifies but little. It would be unwise to make it mean much. The proper degree of proficiency in them can be attained only with maturer years and greater intelligence.

If passing an examination in these branches, as has been indicated, were to be made a condition of receiving a diploma, the pupil's pride and zeal would be excited in this direction all along the course. Besides, under this particular stimulus, much of the preparation for the examination in reading would be done at home independently of the school.

That I am not merely representing the deficiencies of the institution I am connected with, is made clear both from observation and from inquiries made elsewhere. One of our lady teachers not long ago visited an excellent city high school. In giving a report of her week's visitation there she said it was some consolation to know that our school was not the only one that produced poor readers.

The art of composition must be learned. Only now and then a genius is able to do without passing through "the green age of apprenticeship". It requires long and patient practice, intelligence that comes only by study, and mature judgment that nothing but time can develop. A French writer of great distinction says: "With whatever talent a man may be born, the art of writing is not easily learned". An experienced author was once asked if he would encourage young people in writing poetry. "By all means" he replied, "the poetry will of course be good for nothing; but the practice will be most helpful to them in forming the habit of careful thinking, and especially in giving them facility in diction, which will be of real use in their less ambitious efforts at prose."

Probably fewer persons are fitted to teach English composition than almost any other important branch of study. Generally teachers have never been well or sufficiently instructed in it themselves, as the amount of time and attention usually given it is likely to leave but little impression upon either teacher or pupil. Rousseau, whose financial distress on one occasion compelled him to affect a calling for which he was not qualified, said: "By continuing to teach music I insensibly gained some knowledge of it". Those who attempt to teach the art of composition must pass through a similar experience.

It is a common mistake in teaching the art of literary composition to affect great speed, and not to recognize the necessity for time and for slow and painful care. Too many teachers emulate the feat of the author mentioned by Horace, who boasted that he could write 200 verses while standing on one leg.

A good illustration of the utter helplessness of a beginner when set unaided to the task of writing a composition is the case of a bright girl of 13 years, who chose "Religion" as her subject, and began substantially as follows: "There are a great many kinds of religion. There is the Presbyterian religion, the Episcopalian religion, the Baptist religion, the Roman Catholic religion, the Universalist religion and the Methodist religion". This exhausted the list of church denominations in her own village; but by enumerating others less familiar to her, and not forgetting the Mormons, she succeeded in reaching the required minimum limit of 50 words, and breathed freely at last in the conscious satisfaction of having achieved at least one of those terrible things called compositions.

It is idle to say that a secondary school whose graduating course is laid down by the regents of the University ought to possess virtue enough in itself to secure the desired results in any particular branch not recognized as essential in the regents' curriculum. It would be just as reasonable to expect a college in which French is not made a necessary part of the graduating course to make good French scholars of all its students. As the wind blows from the Regents' office, so will those schools graduating only with the regents' diplomas set their sails.

I most firmly believe in certain *essentials* for obtaining the academic or college entrance diploma, and that the chief of these essentials is some definite skill in writing English. If the student

be allowed to choose and refuse at his own discretion and inclination, he will too often find something more inviting than rhetoric.

Somebody, with acuteness of judgment, has laid down the principle, that we should "either trust a man altogether or not at all". This rule is applicable in regard to examinations and courses of study in the secondary schools. We must trust the Regents' office altogether or not at all. Yet in this one particular, that of composition, the school must have a special virtue of its own and do a work beyond what the regents may reasonably require, even when refusing to grant any kind of a senior-academic certificate or diploma without rhetoric.

All students of the academic grade might profitably have class exercise in composition and in reading at least four days in the week, the fifth being reserved for instruction in morals, hygiene, or incidental subjects. If two 25 minute periods each day prove an extravagant expenditure of time, as is likely to be the case, then let one such period be divided between composition and reading, not alternating day by day, but half-term by half-term, on the Jesuit principle of pursuing one study at a time. Each daily composition should be brief, not exceeding 50 words. Ordinarily about one third of the class will have had some rhetoric. That the class is of unequal proficiency may be a real advantage, no subject being too simple for the most experienced. Dean Swift could write elegantly on a broom-stick. In the time allotted for the recitation the teacher can read aloud and criticise in the presence of his class nearly all of the compositions of the day, giving the whole class the benefit of the originality of each member. The few compositions he lacks time to read may be safely assigned for correction to the most competent members of the class, thus obviating that disagreeable drudgery of the teacher, "looking over the compositions" out of school. The whole question of teaching composition-writing in the schools is summed up in this: *regular daily class exercise.* This exercise can also be made the best possible practice in spelling and penmanship. In such daily contact with each pupil the teacher finds the surest revelation of the pupil's deficiencies in matters most essential to a proper education.

Prin. G. C. Sawyer.—For one I feel especially obliged to Professor Clark, of Syracuse University, for his admirable paper so excellently presented. I do not think within the whole range of

subjects which we are called upon to teach there is one more important than that of English composition, nor one that is so commonly neglected, or, at least, with the best we seem to do, is less sufficiently taught. One reason, without doubt, is the hurry owing to the multiplicity of subjects. Teachers are so bent upon passing students on the regents' examinations, that more and more is lost the habit of writing good English which I think was more common in our schools 40 years ago than it is to-day. In reference to one topic in Prof. Clark's essay, I was reminded of the time when Monseigneur Capel visited this country. He visited the Utica Academy while in session, and asked me what he should do in the school. I said anything he would like to do I would like to have him do. After a few remarks, he said, "What are the older pupils reading?" I mentioned Shakespeare's Julius Cæsar, and, quoting a passage from the play, he asked a student to paraphrase it. That was his method of trying to see what was done with reference to the study of English.

I think there is no better method to be pursued with pupils in order to give them facility of expression. So with the lesson in mental science, my way has been to have some one of the class put an abstract of the review upon the blackboard. The pupil goes to the board and writes down a paraphrase from memory of a portion of the day's lesson by topics in his or her own language. I have found this to produce excellent results if kept up in the different studies all through the course.

I have noticed, as doubtless the lecturer had in mind, that children at the age of eight, nine or 10 years seldom find difficulty in composing in their own way. They will take a pencil and piece of paper and scribble something, or write a note to you or to Aunt Mary in their ingenuous, childish manner. When the child passes that age and comes to be 13 or 14, it is chary of putting its thoughts on paper. Why? It is now expected to "write a composition" and it becomes all at once constrained in style. The child beginning from an early age should not omit to write; next the proper subjects should be introduced in somewhat the way our lecturer touched upon. Unite this with constant paraphrasing, also never allowing the child, when he or she recites, to use bad English. The constant exercise and use of good English is, in a way, exercise in English composition. So, too, in recitations in English literature and especially in translating

from the Latin or Greek, never allowing an error to pass unnoticed. Good results can be secured in all these ways with some ingenuity and without great apparent effort.

Another point,— we too often have to trust the education, especially of younger pupils, to those who are themselves ignorant or but partly educated. How can we expect daily contact of this kind to produce good results in the particular we are now considering? Cicero asked, "Who is the virtuous man?" And answered, "He who has accustomed himself to do right as a matter of habit." So the good writer will finally write correctly as a matter of habit. One of the best tests and results of thorough education is the ability to write good English.

Cannot something be effected to this end by a closer scrutiny of the papers handed in at the regents' examinations? It may be possible to indicate in some way from this office when papers are sent in notably deficient in this respect.

Sup't C. W. Cole.— There is so much in the paper of Professor Clark that merits hearty approbation, that I should hesitate to say anything, except to echo what he has said, were it not for one special point that he made. The Professor instituted a comparison between the outcome of a course in English composition in a certain high school, preceded by a special course of work in a graded school system, and that which came from a similar course in a private academy, and, in doing so, he intimated that the unfavorable result shown by the high school was due very largely to the defects of the preceding course in the graded school from which the pupils of that high school came. Now, it seems to me, in the first place, that if the gentleman had based his comparison upon a broader experience, upon a greater number of instances, if he had obtained information from a larger number of schools than two, he might not have reached the conclusion stated. I feel that I can not let the conclusion be drawn, that the result of the teaching in the graded schools, under the system known as "language lessons", is failure, without making a protest. I want to say simply this, as one who has been interested in, and as an ardent mover in the promotion of these lessons, that I believe the Professor is wholly mistaken in his deduction. The underlying principle of the system of language lessons in graded schools, the one thing in that course which we insist upon, and which we believe to be absolutely essential to profitable work, is this very

practice of original composition demanded so strenuously in the paper just read. It is insisted upon, first, in oral expression on the part of the youngest child, and, as soon as practicable, in written; and this course is carried along, *pari passu*, throughout the preparatory years until the high school is reached, when the required exercises branch out into more extended expression. I wish, therefore, to urge that it should not be regarded as settled that graded language lessons are a failure, for, I believe, they have been productive of excellent fruit, and that a wider investigation would satisfy Professor Clark that my belief is well founded.

I have another word to say, that is in the way of a suggestion as to something that will help the work, the important work, of composition in the secondary schools, and I will speak entirely in the line of experience, rather than from theory. Some four years ago, we established, in the high school with which I am officially connected, a course of study which we called a course in English. I had felt for many years that English had been placed in the background; that the classical, mathematical and scientific courses were always recognized, and even foreign languages were given a distinct place, while the study of English, of the mother tongue, had been made a mere incident. I felt that it had become essential to establish certain lines of work in English; that the study of the English language should be made a part of the course of study, just as much as Latin, or Greek, or mathematics, or French, or German. With that feeling, the faculty of the school sympathized, and a course of study has been established which we call the course in English, starting in the first year with the study of authors, and giving a large portion of its allotted time to the study and practice of oral and written composition. Every class in the first and second years in the high school is obliged to give two recitation hours in the week to composition or to cognate work. This line of work is carried on through the entire course; the strongest emphasis is placed upon it, and the outcome has, in the estimation of experienced teachers, surpassed expectation.

I want to say further that many admirable suggestions were made by Professor Clark in the latter part of his paper. Some of these are identical with the plans we are using to-day, and from which we believe we are getting, at least, better results than we did previously. I feel that if these suggestions are followed in all

the schools of the state, we shall soon see a better state of things in the teaching of English than has existed heretofore.

Prin. F. S. Capen.— I would like to emphasize the point made by Superintendent Cole, of Albany. It seems to me that the gentleman who presented the paper, and the subject was admirably presented, entirely mistakes the object of the language lesson. As I understand it, the object of the language lesson is not to teach English composition as it is generally understood, any more than it is the object in teaching arithmetic to teach English composition. The language lesson has an entirely different object in view and ought not to receive criticism in the direction mentioned. It may be as we teach too much arithmetic and too little English composition, so, although I don't say so, we teach too much of what may be called language lessons, and too little English composition; but the two things are entirely distinct. That is the point I desired to make.

Prof. J. Scott Clark.— I certainly appreciate the kind reception you have accorded to my paper. I have been learning a lesson in English composition. I did not make one point quite clear. I have no objection to language lessons in themselves, in practice or in theory. They may be made to produce good results. What I ought to have made more clear is, that I object to their crowding out the essay work.

REGENTS' EXAMINATIONS

Discussion

[As this discussion was very rapid, the stenographer, who was unfamiliar with the speakers, failed in many cases to get their names.]

Pres. J. M. Taylor in the chair.

Question 1. Shall persons not considered by the principal well prepared be admitted to the examination?

Sec'y Dewey.—The office has no scheme or plan whatever to carry out in regard to these questions. It is simply trying to find out what the principals of the state and the college men want. We have been sending out circulars on these matters placed here on the program by Dr Watkins, and after reading the answers we find a decided difference of opinion. We thought it would be well to get the

consensus of opinion. Briefly, we want to find out the sentiment of the Convocation and then print that to go into operation with the fall examinations.

As to the first question:

Shall persons not considered by the principal well prepared be admitted to the examination?

We have had cases where the principals have said to students: "You shall not be admitted to the examination; you have not attended class work, and you are shut out." The state says, "The examination shall be open to all citizens of the state." We must have a ruling by the regents or action by the legislature as to whether the principal has the right to shut out students. The office feels that no student should be excluded as matter of discipline. Discipline should not be mixed up with the regents' examinations. But the question still remains whether a principal has the right to exclude a pupil, because his class work has not been satisfactory. The question here is, Are principals willing that every pupil shall have the right to try the examination, whether prepared or not?

A question was asked as to the legality of the announcement that no candidates not presumed by the principal to be prepared for the examination, were to be admitted.

Sec'y Dewey.— The question is now as to the making of a new law. If we find out what the schools want we shall have the law conform to it.

The law now allows any person to pay the fees prescribed and be examined. The regents can make a rule that will shut out those unprepared. Is such a rule desirable?

Vote taken without result.

Resolution offered: That no persons shall be admitted to the regents' examinations, who are not considered by the principal well prepared therefor.

Resolution seconded.

Question: Does that mean the students actually in attendance in school and simply those; or does it mean those in school and those who come from outside? How are we to know whether those who come from outside are prepared or not?

Resolution substituted: That it is the sense of the Convocation of the University of the State of New York, that students in

school who have done past work not satisfactory to the principal shall, in his discretion, be excluded from the examination.

Carried.

Question 2. Shall candidates be admitted to examinations after the question papers have been distributed?

Sec'y Dewey.— In certain schools they admit to the examination pupils who come in after the examination has been going on some time; a train is late, or a wagon has broken down, and they are a quarter or a half an hour late. Where shall we draw the line? It certainly vitiates the integrity of these examinations if you allow a pupil to enter after others have left the room. We prefer to make entirely new question papers rather than allow the same papers to be used at an hour other than that for which they were prepared. Now the question comes up, Do you wish to admit pupils after examinations have begun? It involves shutting out some whose trains are late, but it involves the integrity of the examinations if you admit them after.

Chair.— Shall this question be discussed? Puts the question and it is carried.

Prin. J. C. Norris.— At Canandaigua we have the trouble mentioned. Trains come from three directions,— east, west and south— and reach there from 9.30 to 9.45. Many come on these trains to try the examinations; not our own pupils usually, but they come from places where no examinations are held. There is no chance of anything wrong about the examinations; no papers are taken from the room from the time it begins until all the pupils are through. We think it would work a great injustice if those persons were shut out.

Prin. H. M. Lovell.— At Elmira the same circumstances occur at times, with this difference, or this additional fact: in every such case the examination is required to be finished at the time set by the Regents' office. There is never a minute nor half a minute additional time allowed. But there are always students better than the average. The student who comes in on a train is a citizen of the state of New York. He has a right to go somewhere and get a doctor's certificate or medical student certificate, or a state diploma to admit him to college. It is a question of citizenship in the state, not of pupilship in the school.

It was suggested that the idea would be more exactly expressed by rewording the question thus: "Shall candidates be admitted to the examination after any one has left the room in which the examination is held?"

Sec'y Dewey.—That is the point. One man gets through before the other men, perhaps in 30 minutes. If all are not in the room at the beginning, it allows a number to go out and give those who enter late information. You as principals can hardly know the experience we have had in other cases.

The suggestion previously made was embodied in the following: "*Resolved*, It is the sense of this Convocation that no students should enter the examination room after the examination has begun, provided any one has gone out from the examination."

Seconded.

It was suggested that students who are admitted to the examinations should be required to remain during the session.

Sec'y Dewey.— Sometimes we have 200 men to examine, and sometimes there is a man among them who is really very ill.

Sup't Beattie.— I rise for information on this point: whether there is any honor on earth? Whoever this young person is, he is called upon to raise his right hand at the close of every examination, and testify at length that he has seen nobody, that he knows nothing of his own option or volition, that he had no help from anybody, in fact that he really does not know that he is alive, and sign his name to it, no matter whether he came early or late. It is a part and parcel of that same thing which, when this is all done, requires those of us who take the affidavit on the first page of the report, to swear we have read this thing all through, we have spelled every word, we have observed the italics, that we know all about it, and know every child, of our own knowledge, whether boy or girl, and all that sort of thing, and yet in the face of all this testimony, all these affidavits, all these asseverations on the part of the young people, we can not trust the principals and managers of these examinations in the state of New York, to use a little bit of judgment about a boy, when we know all about him, and to know that though he did come half an hour late, when he puts his name, Johnny Suggs, at the end of that paper, makes that declaration, we believe it to be true.

An opinion was expressed that, as all candidates receive notice of the time when the examinations begin, the law student or the doctor, or any of the outsiders who take these examinations ought to come to the same standard as the rest, and if the time is set at nine o'clock, to be on hand punctually; that a sliding scale will never work satisfactorily.

Queries were made whether it is one of the specified regulations of the regents that no one is to be admitted to the examination after the question papers are distributed?

Whether the requirements of the regents say to the principal that the regulations and rules must be read to all the candidates? If so, whether they shall read them at nine o'clock and then again at quarter past nine, and again at 10 o'clock, and so on during the session?

Sec'y Dewey.—First, it is not a question of what the regulations were in the past; but of what they shall be in the future. In reading the rules to the school you can explain them; you can explain the meaning of the declaration, "I do so declare". I suppose it possible that a pupil being told to write "I do declare", might do so and go out not knowing what he certified to. I feel as keenly as Superintendent Beattie the question whether there is any honor left in the state. That is the question. Like corporations, it doesn't come in the ordinary moral code in some sections of the state. But I did not intend to speak of this here. Still you must face the fact that every little while we in the office find a case of deliberate fraud. We find it with papers that come in sworn to by principal and student. The papers have been passed without proper safeguards. So there are reasons which will subject us all to this annoyance of having to guard this matter as if our boys and girls were dishonest. I asked Pres. Eliot about this same point in reference to admission to Harvard college. They dare not risk it. Oxford, Cambridge, or any other institution with a long experience in conducting examinations dares not risk it. We see it is hard for some of the principals to understand this matter, surrounded as they are by the boys and girls. It makes one very careful when he knows that he must go before a notary and take his oath that he has not cheated in that examination Under the new law even the president, — our chairman, — when he puts in his report of Vassar College, takes his oath that that is a correct report. This is a baffling problem. Every solution you have

suggested here makes trouble. The question is what shall be done after the question papers have been distributed. A bright boy may get through with questions early and may go out; then he can give another help. In our examinations the other day in New York Mr Thomas made a very good start. One of his rules was that no books, notes, or devices of any kind should be taken into the examination room. If it should be discovered, whether used or not, the pupil would be excluded from the privileges of the examination. We know that many are expecting to get through these examinations by their wits, and not by their knowledge of the subject. Our attention is called to these instances and we have to guard against the danger. The ingenuity exercised by some in discovering resources whereby they can make up for lack of acquirements necessary to pass the examination, is greater and involves more effort on their part than it would require to learn the subject and pass it in a legitimate way.

Query: Whether, if the precautions suggested are necessary for but two or three of the principals of the state, it is fair to make the other 300 suffer on account of those two or three?

Whether it was fair even if the affidavit prevented dishonesty, that two or three should militate against the great body of honest men?

The opinion was expressed that if one candidate was allowed to leave, it had a bad influence on the rest; that no one should be permitted to leave when it is known that somebody else is to come, in the case of a short one and three-quarter hour paper; and that under these conditions there could be no risk in letting candidates in after the papers are distributed. The principal should have discretion where he knows that the pupil has the embarrassment arising in Canandaigua, Elmira, or any such place.

Another speaker stated the difficulty as follows: Student A begins an examination and goes out in half or three-quarters of an hour, and student B comes in. Possibly in that case while student B was out he received information. It is of course possible that he does not pass the examination and does not make the declaration; perhaps no one makes the declaration but at the same time information has been given. This resolution will hit the practice of going out and bringing information into the room.

It was again urged that the regents' rule should be strictly adhered to and that those who wish to take these examinations should be on time; that those who have been so unfortunate as not to get there on time should wait over; that this sliding scale of time would work harm.

It was suggested that if the regents wait till the principals of the schools hit upon some plan, they will never get the plan; for every one has an idea a little different from every one else.

Chair puts the question, and the resolution is adopted that candidates shall be admitted to the examination after the questions have been distributed, provided no one has left the examination room.

Question 3. Shall Latin-German and Latin-French diplomas be issued?

Sec'y Dewey.—It was agreed at Syracuse that a modern language diploma be issued. A scheme was drawn up and adopted. That scheme provides alternatives; they may take Latin or German, or Latin and French, or French and German, and there are various combinations. The question is shall we issue a diploma covering all those combinations. They may take a Latin-French, or a German-French course. It is simply the issuing of the diploma in a way to show which of the elective forms was taken.

Vote was taken without result.

Sec'y Dewey.—We are perfectly satisfied to go ahead and issue them or if you prefer to have a single diploma we will issue that.

Question 4. In English language (preliminary) examination, shall a work of some author be assigned beforehand from which a topic for an essay may be selected, or shall a story be sent with the question papers to be read to the candidates for them to reproduce?

Moved, That the first part of the question be the sense of the Convocation.

Sup't C. W. Cole.—I offer an amendment to the effect that both be a part of the scheme, the office to choose between the two on different occasions. I think you can readily see that both plans have great usefulness.

Against the latter plan was urged the objection that it would disturb other candidates who were in the room taking other sub-

jects; as the subject would have to be announced and the principal would have to read the story.

On the other hand, it was pointed out that it is not necessary for the principal to read the story at all; that the story could be printed on separate slips of paper for each candidate and placed on the desk; a certain amount of time given to the pupils to read that slip and then the slip taken up from the desk and the pupils proceed to their reproduction. That there is thus no necessity for reading aloud, and this plan would be better.

Sup't C. W. Cole.— I move to amend that it is the sentiment of the Convocation that in place of assigning the book from which the topic for the essay is to be selected, that all papers, whatever their subject, be required to be presented in good form as to spelling, punctuation, paragraphing, etc., and if all papers are presented in good form, that that be taken as satisfactory evidence of proficiency in language. Thus you can get better results in every way.

Prin. C. T. R. Smith.— It was perhaps at my suggestion that Dr Watkins inserted in the list of questions the latter alternative.

It was proposed, as you will remember, that the regents should issue annually or oftener as they at present issue a list of special topics in United States history and in literature,— a list of works, something perhaps of the nature of the supplementary reading that is coming into vogue so widely in this state; that these should be used in the class preparing for examination, and that from them should be selected the subject for an essay in the English language examination which is to take the place of the English grammar examination. In opposition to this plan it has been urged that these examinations would in some cases be too difficult for students; that they would partake more of the nature of a college entrance examination than of a preliminary academic examination; therefore it was proposed to substitute a reproduction exercise of a kind familiar to most students in our secondary schools.

On every consideration it seems as if it would be far better to confine ourselves to the original plan. The President of Columbia said at the State Teachers' Association, after speaking of his desire to have the classics pursued, of his estimate of the value of mathematics, of his regard for science, "More than all I value a

mastery of my own tongue, the tongue of Shakspere, the tongue of Abraham Lincoln." I believe this subject to be one of the most important that can come before this Convocation. In this matter we are prescribing for the daily work of nearly 30,000 pupils in the state of New York; for whatever is prescribed for the regents' preliminary and academic examinations, will become the most important part of the daily work in the grammar schools and academies throughout the state. For the regents to prescribe a piece of good English literature to be carefully read and studied, as preparatory for this examination, would be a most important step forward; a step for which a mere story read to the class for reproduction would be no equivalent. We ought to consider the effect that a requirement of this kind would have on school work.

As to the availability of this plan as a test of preliminary and academic scholarship, I think that an essay on a subject selected from a standard author would be a far better, broader, more comprehensive test, and a fairer test of ability to enter on academic studies, than merely to reproduce a story. Ability to reproduce a story varies greatly. One boy with a remarkable memory, will produce almost *verbatim;* others may find it impossible. A far fairer requirement for every examination would be an essay on a subject selected from some standard author who shall have been made the subject of study during the preceding term. It seems to me that the original resolution ought to prevail.

Carried.

Question 5. In English language examinations, shall classification of sentences and analysis of simple forms of sentences be required?

Moved, That this question be answered in the affirmative.

Seconded and carried.

Question 6. Shall examinations in English literature be more on works of authors, and less on facts about authors?

Moved, That the examinations shall be more on the works of authors, and less on facts about authors.

Moved as an amendment, That it is the sense of this Convocation that a pass card of English language shall be issued on groups of English authors to be selected by the office and that the

examination shall be more on the works and less on the facts about the authors.

Seconded.

—— From every college in the land that I know anything about, rises one cry. You heard it this morning, you hear it every time you put a teacher of English literature into a college, that the pupils do not and can not use their native tongue. These amendments are directly, these two points are directly in that line of forcing the study of the English language into the lines of our language and literature. For many years we have proven an anomaly. We have turned our pupils out on the world knowing the orations of Cicero, knowing the orations of Demosthenes, knowing Homer and Virgil and heaven knows what, but the one thing they did not know was whether Daniel Webster wrote the Declaration of Independence, or the produce list.

Step by step the last few years we have been making progress. The colleges of the country have called each year for groups of authors. Give us who are willing a chance to do just that work that the colleges have asked for, and that will enable us to put our pupils in immediate connection with the great works of the great writers and the great minds blazoned across a noble English literature. Let us for instance, as an illustration, have pass cards on American writers. Let our pupils know something thoroughly about the works of Daniel Webster, about Everett, about Sumner, and if I may be allowed to add, about at least one thing that has the classic grace and dignity that ennobled the oration to which we listened last night. [The address of Chancellor Curtis.] Let our pupils know something about English poets and poetry. Let us have an opportunity to teach them Shakspere thoroughly and well, and let us have a little credit for it. Let in the pass card in English literature. Let it not stand for what it has stood in the past, a mere knowledge of things about the authors, and knowing nothing of the authors themselves.

I stopped once in a school and heard a class recite about Macaulay, Dickens and Thackeray. They told in eloquent language, copied directly from his biography, the peculiarities of each man's style, just how he wrote and how he did not write, but when I asked them what they had read of Dickens or Thackeray, it didn't amount to 40 pages of their combined works. We want

to get rid of that. We want to cultivate a taste in literature, a taste for reading. The consequence of the old way is that we turn out pupils into the world with a love for reading, but what they read is trash and not good literature. Go to a New York book store and what do you see? Volumes of stuff, the worst misinformation that fills the land. Give us a chance to cultivate in our pupils a love for the pure, the best and noblest that exists in the noblest literature of the world.

I am in favor of anything in this state that will subserve the literary spirit. Now, although the academic teacher knows how he listened entranced to the wisdom and eloquence of Everett, Emerson, Chapin and Phillips, they have passed away. I trust it may be permitted to me as a member of this Convocation to express my delight at the dawning of a new academic day for this University, a day shared in by the Chancellor in whom wisdom and eloquence are blended with the learning and the laughter of the day. I have no intent to compliment. I merely wish to say in this presence what I have said again and again to myself of late: Thank Heaven! At last we have a scholar in the proper place of a scholar!

Now, if I were disposed to compliment anybody I think it would be the Executive committee of this Convocation for the literary element they have put into this program.

This morning we had the art of composition, the art of expression which Emerson has well called "the highest art of arts." This afternoon language, the working of the loom of which is ever weaving the fabric of oral speech. And now literature, in whose precious amber is imbedded the noblest thoughts, the noblest deeds done since the dawn of day.

I was present at a college commencement the other day and noticed the speeches made at the commencement dinner. They were of just two sorts, and only two. The first consisted in glorification of the gifts and the givers of money to the college. Well enough, I suppose, but money has no magic power to make scholars. The other sort was in glorification of athletic contests and the championship of the college. Well may we ask the question, can we transmute brawn into brain? Much may be written on the decay of the literary spirit among college-bred men, and I believe that the more important question than the one, Are college men succeeding in business? is the one, Are college men in danger of losing the literary spirit?

I understand the subject in hand to be really: Whether we shall teach the works of authors, or the lives of authors, and I am speaking precisely upon that point. I think we are in danger as teachers of this subject from two or three various sources. In the first place I think we are in danger from the spirit of the age, the spirit which holds before our boys and girls a literature which turns their eyes away from Shakspere and Addison; we are in danger of not finding the teacher prepared to combat that spirit, which is rather barbaric. We are in danger of losing our appreciation of the exquisite song of Tennyson and the living thought of Shakspere. It is so that even now it seems to make no difference between the poetry born from inspiration within the head, and the poetry born from inspiration outside the head. It is an age which misses the vital fact that in no part of the whole domain of literature can there be found so many unforgetable truths, expressed in such felicitous fashion as in poetry. We are in danger also from the slackness of spirit, the slang in speech and letters, the careless slipshod, ungrammatical way of expressing things, regardless of the fact that it is next door to what has been called slang in action, the dropping away in behavior and in our morals. There is nothing surer than that when men decay in speech, so also do men decay in manners and in morals. I say we should endeavor to guard against this. We should teach also the thoughts of authors rather than the lives because the thoughts make the lives immortal; the thoughts are free from the conditions of life. Anything we can do which will keep alive the literary spirit is the thing for us to do as teachers of the magnificent English speech and literature.

Prof. Truax.— If I could determine the matter by my own fiat I would formulate a principle in substance as follows "That no questions be asked except such as would require for their answer a direct investigation of the very words of the author."

It seems absurd to call a subject literature and yet in practice to make it biography. In the division of studies literature has a distinct place because it is a distinct branch — and it is unscientific to convert it into something other than it really is. Facts about authors' lives are interesting and profitable but not more so than facts about lives of mathematicians, scientists, artists, musicians. If place can be found for such studies we should call the department Lives of Exemplary Characters.

The chief outcome of literary studies is the communication to the pupil of the author's elevated mood of thinking, and the grace and force of his phraseology — so that the student may think in the measure of the master's thought, and speak in the rhythm of the master's utterance. The meager space allowed in the combined *curricula* of school and college is sadly inadequate for even a good beginning of this work, and to lessen the time by throwing away any part of this limited opportunity is culpable waste.

The results obtained by our methods of classical study should indicate the true course in the teaching of our own literature. The classical student does not read *about* Cæsar, and Virgil and Horace, Xenophon, and Homer and Plato — he reads the *very words* penned by the Roman and the Grecian masters. He knows them because they have spoken to him. They — the very concentrated and refined and potent essence of themselves — are in their works, as they are and can be nowhere else, and there they wait to receive and inspire him. It is only when we seek for the treasures of our own commanding literature that we blind our eyes and stray from direct paths, misled by pleasing fancies.

Biographical matter is mere information, easily found in manual and encyclopedia and easily forgotten after it has once been translated to the mind of the student — but the critical study of the literature itself is training of judgment, kindling of imagination, quickening of all mental processes, enlargement of the whole spiritual horizon, often the awakener of such creative force that even the young brain must have deliverance, and the hitherto dumb tongue is loosened in speech to which there are glad listeners. Such influence can never be eradicated, so completely does it possess and control the entire man. Hence it should be eagerly coveted as the best gift in all our literary heritage.

Even the college makes but a beginning of this best course, but if the introduction is wise, the appreciation of good literature lasts, the stimulus continues to act, throughout life, and the right method is applied in all reading. Test questions, even the most wisely constructed, will not exhaust the pupil's knowledge, but they will show that he is proceeding on the right path.

Difficulty will be found in securing good text-books. Most include too many authors. They deaden and discourage the spirit of research by their rapid changes of subject. They give as unsatisfactory an acquaintance with any one writer as would

be gained of cities if the traveler proceeding by railway merely paused for a few minutes at stations and made inquiries of officials instead of lingering in the town and feeling the pulse of the people for himself. Literature ought to be cultivated like land, the margin of cultivation ought to descend from the richest to the poorer only as the best became exhausted, and surplusage of time or pressure of necessity required. In lieu of good text-books, the writings of the best authors can however always be used. The order of study can be determined by the dominant qualities of style exemplified. The preparatory schools can study the writings that exhibit the intellectual qualities of simplicity and clearness most strikingly, while to the college can be left the examination of writings that are characterized by the emotional qualities of strength, pathos, the ludicrous, and the elegancies of melody, harmony, and taste.

There is a species of biography, that ought not to be neglected. The genesis of the author's skill, the special exciting cause, that awakened his genius, the substance on which it fed, the particular environment that shaped its development, and determined its limitations, and that is essential to its just interpretation,— this — whenever it can be known, is valuable — but maturity is an essential condition to its appreciation. The time for such study is certainly not at the beginning of the course.

It will be gratifying proof of the soundness of the main method outlined above, to learn, that, when a single and brief work of a master writer has been assigned as the student's task, he, of his own volition, becoming intensely interested, has gone beyond the most rigid requirement, and has read succeeding works, even during the period of an exacting course of studies, and has formed an attachment that will never be outworn.

The original question as amended put and carried.

Chair.— In the course of four years' attendance at the University Convocation, I have never heard the subject of the English examinations required by the New England colleges referred to on this floor. There is something which has drawn together the colleges in a common standard of admission, and unless our scholars go to the colleges with some such preparation, it will be impossible for the colleges long to accept the regents' certificates.

Vassar College already requires examination on the subject proposed by the New England colleges. I trust this action which seems to me so important, may influence the regents to adopt just that good which has already unified this work in the New England colleges.

Question 7. Shall examinations in more than 10 branches, including algebra and physiology, be given in November?

Prin. Farr.—A large number of the schools of this state, in my judgment, are very deeply interested in this question. It is those schools that don't train up for their academic department their own pupils, but receive them from various schools, and it certainly will work a very great hardship to the old academies of this state unless you give us the examinations, regular examinations on all subjects of the curriculum. Pupils come from different schools with preparation sufficient to pass many of these examinations, and it certainly is a great hardship to keep them waiting from the first of September until March, with no opportunity to pass any studies in the academy with which they have identified themselves. I know that it will make no difference to the secondary schools of the state that manage their own students, that train in their own departments students to come into the academic course. It is the city schools, the large public schools that are in favor of this limited number of examinations in November. On the other hand the academies favor the full complement of examinations at every examination period. The beauty of the old system, which is the system up to this time, is that when the student was ready for the examination, this office very kindly said to him, the examination is ready for you. That is the beauty of an examination system anywhere. That is the standard which has been adopted all over the world, prepare yourself for the examination, and the examination is ready for you. As they have generously decided to give us three examinations a year, it seems to me they will just as generously consent to give us all the subjects at each one of these examinations. I am assured by the office here that they are perfectly willing to do it provided we want it. We most emphatically do want it. Gentlemen, if you don't want all the subjects of examination in November, you who belong to the city schools, it will be no hardship to you, you can select whatever subjects for examination you want and arrange your course of study with

reference to that, but it is a vital point with us. It is a life and death question with these academies whether we shall have these privileges or not; and when this question is put to you, I ask you to remember the interests of that system of academies which has stood for all these years as the representative of higher education. I don't believe there is a public school man in this state who has any such spirit within him. And when the vote comes I am sure you will remember us who plead with all the honest part of our nature for this boon to those poor struggling academies.

Principal Farr's plea was indorsed by a speaker who added: It seems to me in all the discussions on these examinations, the discussion has been from the standpoint of the college. In the secondary schools a large proportion of the pupils never reach college and never intend to. All the higher education they get is in the academies and high schools. Now there are many students who come to our academies and schools, who teach winters; they can not attend throughout the entire year. There are many others who come in the winter season, who can't attend at any other time. It will work great hardship to both these classes if they can't have full examinations in November, and again in March. I believe it is for the interest of about one half the schools of the state, as shown by the preferences, that we should be furnished with the full examinations in these seasons. As has been well said, it can work no hardship to the other schools that do not want it. It seems to me there should be no question about giving us these examinations.

The following was then offered: "*Resolved*, That examinations be held in all the subjects of the academic course at every examination."

Adopted.

Question 8. Shall the fee charged non-attendants in school be abolished?

Moved, That the fee be abolished.

Motion seconded and question called.

It was stated that the reason why some principals would like to have the fee retained was simply to use as a preventive, as persons sometimes come from neighboring towns to try the examinations merely as a matter of curiosity.

Moved, That the word "retained" be substituted in place of the word "abolished."

Motion put and question called.

Information was asked as to how many had ever charged a fee for examination, the probability being that in many sections of the state such a fee would hardly be tolerated.

A question was also raised as to the law governing academic departments in the state, whether the boards of education have the right to charge, or not? How is it in regard to those academies instituted by special law of the legislature and still under the power of the regents? Does the law of the regents or of the boards of education prevail?

Chair.—Dr Watkins, is the fee for examination spoken of in the eighth question, within the powers of the regents or the boards of education?

Dr Watkins.— The law reads as follows: Any person shall be admitted to these academic examinations who shall conform to the rules and pay the fees prescribed by the regents, and said fees shall not exceed one dollar for each branch in which the candidate is examined.

This law covers the whole ground. It is the most recent enactment. Any action of this body is simply in the form of a recommendation, and not law at all.

Question called for.

A principal stated that they have made a charge for preliminary subjects of 50 cents; for others a dollar, saying: We do it for our own protection, because outside candidates would simply fill our rooms and make us a great deal of extra trouble and interfere with our own work. They come in the hope of an easy examination bye and bye that will let them through. We have been obliged to charge a fee for our own protection.

Motion put and carried, that the fee be retained.

Question 9. Shall schools be allowed to take examinations in March in branches not taken in January?

Motion made and seconded that the ninth question be indefinitely postponed. Carried.

Question 10. Is it practicable for schools to promote pupils on the results of the regents examinations?

Motion made and seconded that the question be indefinitely postponed. Carried.

Chair.— This brings us to questions handed in by principals:—

Shall candidates be required to take two examinations the same half day? Would it not be better to have extra papers made out for those who otherwise would be obliged to take two examinations the same half day?

Moved, That the regents be requested to prepare extra papers for those who otherwise would be obliged to take two examinations in the same half day. Seconded.

Objected that if the regents furnished papers four times, it was too much to ask them to give supplementary papers because a few did not arrange a program.

Motion lost.

Chair.— Shall new studies be added to the curriculum? Shall this question be discussed?

Voted not to discuss the question.

Moved, That the Convocation respectfully ask the officers of the regents to drop from any examination, or rather not to incorporate in any examination in the future the following subjects: conic sections, analytical geometry, mineralogy, biology, history of art, art criticism, logic, and history of philosophy.

Motion seconded and question called.

Prin. D. C. Farr.—We very well remember that for a long time the question was in dispute and very hotly contended, that the colleges were doing our work, and the colleges at last came completely to conceive what their legitimate work was, and stopped doing academic work and went on grandly doing college work. And we said "Amen. Glory Hallelujah!" Now, do we want to go to work in the face of that and do college work? I for one should feel disgraced, after the college had granted us the privilege of doing our work, to step from the line into the boundaries of the college course and undertake to do the work of a college. I for one as an academic principal want the boundary sharply defined between college and academy. I ask every person on the floor to-day whether conic sections is a collegiate or an academic study? I ask also whether the history of philosophy is a collegiate

or academic study. Let us, I beg of you, represent our feeling to the regents that we want to do academic work, and we want the colleges to do collegiate work. There is a principle involved here which no academic principal can afford to have established as a precedent. For instance, here is our neighbor who is very ambitious although it is an academy; it yet wants to do collegiate work. It makes a pretense to teach the history of philosophy or conic sections to a boy or girl, and asks us why we don't teach conic sections and history of philosophy and all the other things that apply to a college curriculum. We say, we don't want to; we are an academy. I say it is for the interests of the schools of the state to preserve their form as academies. We do not want to assume to be something we are not and never can be, presuming to be a college and teaching conic sections, history of art, art criticism, and history of philosophy.

Motion carried unanimously.

Chair.— The principals of the state request that the regents' questions be put up in separate envelopes as formerly.

Voted not to discuss the question.

Moved, That the Regents' office be requested to put up the questions in separate envelopes as formerly.

Motion seconded and question called.

The proposer explained that he made this motion at the request of the officers of the board. Every principal who has been spoken to on the subject, says emphatically he wants these papers by themselves.

Dr Watkins.— I am afraid my friend misapprehended what I said to him on the subject. I am the person who spoke to him in this case. What I intended to convey to him was that if there was a general feeling in favor of this, it should find expression here; not that we wanted it done by any means, but we want to know what the principals want of us, and then we will take it into consideration. There are other elements in the case beside putting the questions up in separate packages.

In regard to all these questions the office is always glad to have suggestions, but it does not promise to adopt them or to live up to them in any case. Considering the schools in their varying usages throughout the state, it proposes to do the best thing in

reference to the wants of all. To sum up: the office, as it understands itself, is made for the schools. It proposes therefore to follow such a course of action, so far as its judgment is concerned, as shall conduce to the interest, the highest interest of not one or two, bu of all the schools.

Motion carried, that the office be requested to follow the old method of putting up the papers in separate packages.

Chair.—If the regents' diploma be required for graduation, should the examination for such diploma be completed by the June examination?

Voted not to discuss the question.

Chair.—Should the length of the examination session be from 9.15 a. m. to 12.15 p. m., and from 1.45 to 5 p. m.?

Voted not to discuss the question.

Chair.—Is it practicable to bring the program of examinations within four days?

Voted not to discuss the question.

Chair.—Should the standard for passing spelling be 75 per cent.? Should 85 per cent be required in the regents' examination, when 75 per cent is sufficient in every other?

Moved, That the standard be 90 per cent, instead of 85 per cent.

Motion seconded. Question called.

Moved, That the word "75" be substituted in place of "90."

Seconded. Question called.

After short discussion,

Moved, That the matter be laid on the table. Carried.

Chair.—May a pupil be allowed to use a dictionary during progress of the examination?

Voted not to discuss the question.

Chair.—A question of the necessity of prompt returns of the results of the examinations and issue of pass cards and certificates. If a motion is desired it can be made at this time.

Prin. G. C. Sawyer.—I suggest this point in reference to the great work of the office: How long and how far can the schools, a great many of the larger schools, continue to use this method

of examination for promotion from class to class, unless we can have some system devised by which we can have prompt returns, by special examiners, just as they do at the [illegible]ges?

I am not speaking now in disparagement, [illegible]knowledge the great work of the office; but this point seems a fair matter of discussion. The returns of last March did not reach Utica Academy until the beginning of the June examination. What possible chance was there for pupils to take that examination again? What incentive is there to enter into this examination, if the results are to be indefinitely postponed. When I go back in September we shall have the certificates of last March examination. Why is this? Notwithstanding the great burden of work in the office,— and they are as hard workers as there are in the world,— the question is whether some method can not be devised by which academies and high schools can get the full benefit of the examinations, which depends on quick, certain returns of the results of the examination. Is there no way by which special examiners could be appointed in such a way as to make the regents' examinations a grander benefit than our own examinations? I offer this subject for discussion: The necessity of the full benefit of these examinations and of more speedy returns of results to the schools.

Voted to discuss the question.

Prin. G. C. Sawyer.— As at present arranged, with present results, we fear we may not be able long to continue the regents' examinations, for the reasons I have just mentioned. I think of late, within a year or two, the examination papers have in some respects varied a great deal. That makes a difficulty, if we have a large examination in American history of 100 and only 10 or 20 pass; and on the other hand in English history and two other histories the result is the other way, it is unfortunate. So it is with Cæsar and in algebra at present, notwithstanding the work of the office. If we wish to benefit by the results of these examinations, it seems absolutely necessary that we should have more speedy results as an incentive to try for the pass cards and diplomas. It seems quite necessary and desirable that we should be able to use these results for promotion and use these results as an incentive. There are three examinations a year, say there are four; say they take three weeks. The teachers have to take

three weeks to look over and tabulate these results; then two weeks to get up that annual report. If the results are not got back so that we can fairly and fully pass the pupils, then look for another system of examinations; spend half as much time on that. Suppose we come back in September and find that 30 or 40 papers come back rejected. We thought these pupils were going to pass. What are we going to do about that. Are we going to let them go on and trust to chances. Then three months after, as many papers come back. I don't see any other way of getting over or around it except by the appointment of more special paid examiners to do the work. I should really like to hear any one on this matter, and then from the office as to what shall be done about it.

It was suggested that the last speaker's difficulty might very easily be disposed of by not sending down half the papers to be rejected.

Another suggestion was that, as of the 200 papers sent to the Regents' office from which early returns are desired, there are not over half a dozen in doubt, let early returns be asked on these half dozen doubtful papers. Would not early returns on the few we are in doubt about answer the purpose just as well as if all were looked over?

Prin. J. G. Allen.—The difficulty is with the large schools. We have reported the names of 385 students who wish to enter the Rochester Free Academy. How are we to know whether all these 385 are eligible or not? If they are not prepared we don't want them; if they are prepared, we don't want to shut them out. How are we to know, if the credentials are not returned to us before opening school in September? I appreciate this point very much, if I understand it rightly. Credentials of the January examinations were not received, at any rate they were not received in Rochester, until after our school had closed.

Another point I hoped our brother would make, is the incentive. I would emphasize that point, the incentive of having the pass cards come as soon as may be, rather than holding them back until the whole subject matter is forgotten.

It was suggested that it would be well to pass a resolution making it the sense of this Convocation, and presenting it to the legislature in the form of a petition, either asking for a larger

appropriation through the committee of Ways and Means, and giving the chance to the regents to appoint special examiners to cover this difficulty; or else to have a bill drafted and presented in both houses, asking for the creation of special examiners under the jurisdiction or supervision of the regents. This would legalize the matter and take a great deal of work and trouble off the hands of the secretaries, Mr Dewey and Dr Watkins, then the blame could be put where the blame belongs; and in the course of time, the regents would have this wheel of their machinery working in such a way that probably no principals of regents' academies would have any reason to find fault with the creation of that board.

Another spoke of the tendency to look on a question of this kind as of small importance: saying that it is not pleasant for any principal to stand up here and talk about these little details of the examinations, for the thought always comes up: Our hearts ought to be busy in the higher things of education, and not on the petty part of the details of the work, the routine of it. There is, however, a good deal of force in what the principals have said about delay in these certificates. Pass cards and intermediate certificates come late, so long after the pupils are entitled to them, that the effect is entirely dissipated and they have become a matter of ancient history. The scholars have forgotten that they passed an examination. So far as my school is concerned, I can say so far as any school is concerned, so far as inciting the scholars to exertion and study, these examinations have no appreciable effect on account of this delay in getting results. I can tell a worse story than Brother Sawyer. We had examinations in January and the credentials for that examination were received a day or two before I came to this Convocation, and my desk is full of pass cards and certificates. There they will lie until next September, and will then be given to such pupils as are in school, months after the examination is passed. The class of 80 will be scattered. I have a collection of pass cards in my desk that will never be given to those they were issued for. It is like punishing a man for a crime four or five years after it was committed. So the reward of these examinations ought to be quick enough to be appreciated by the pupil.

Prin. H. P. Emerson.— One reason of there being so many doubtful papers is that there are so many questions in the papers on which doubt can be reasonably raised. Everybody

knows that among the arithmetic questions in June, were questions which could be answered in two or three different ways. The English language is capable of expressing a man's meaning, if the things which express that proposition mean a definite thing. When you say a man sent so much money to us in January for buying goods, if you mean with which to buy goods, why not say so. There are instances of indefinite phraseology in many of these questions and I am free to say, — for I do not think we ought to come here to indulge in mutual admiration, — I am free to say that the questions during the past year in my judgment have been marked by much fluctuation and uncertainty. The question has certainly arisen in my mind, as never before, whether we can afford to commit the great interests of the school I have the honor of representing, with the devoted work that is put into that school, in faith, in hope, in trust, to the fluctuations of these examinations. I am in earnest about this. I think if any one should inquire in Buffalo as to my attitude on this question, the answer would be that I have been the champion of these regents' examinations. I have stood against the superintendent of education in this matter. And such questions as we have had during the past year! Sometimes only giving intimation of the names of the subject of examination. You cannot afford to have one thing new to do one year and another, another. You don't want 36 inches to the yard this year, and 42 next. You want some uniformity. It seems to me now that any sort of judgment would pronounce that the arithmetic paper in June was more difficult than it has been. If it is policy to make it so, I have no fault to find. If it results from want of a due sense of the seriousness of this business, that ought to be known. Our teachers are experienced. I went from room to room asking one after another, "what about the questions in arithmetic?" The first one said they were much more difficult than last year; another one said not one-half the pupils passed. I would remind you of those 652 pupils, graduates of the grammar schools, trying this examination for admission to the high school, the requirement being that they should have full regents' certificates before they came in. It is a momentous question with us. You can imagine it was a time of anxiety with me during that examination. I am afraid sometimes those who make the questions don't appreciate all that a cranky set of questions means, and the trouble it will impose on others. That is why

the questions are doubtful; that is why we never know in all cases when we send answer papers to Albany, whether they will be accepted or not. It is because the questions are in doubt. If the questions are doubtful in their meaning, the answers will be doubtful, and we shall be doubtful as to results. I think there is real cause for complaint here, and if we don't complain and insist there is something wrong, the wrong will not be cured.

Prin. G. C. Sawyer.— I wish to answer a certain criticism. A gentleman suggested that I should not send on certain papers. Professor Emerson has answered that, when he says, if the examination questions are doubtful, the answers will be doubtful; how can you expect answers to be correct? For example, in the last paper in American history, five graduates came to this question: "Discuss the principle of state sovereignty." How does that question appear to a child of 13 or 14 years? And we put American history in the easiest class. After that question is down, "Tell us about state rights as a matter of history in this country." Five graduates failed on that question. To submit that question to pupils of 13 or 14, you must expect the failure of a very large percentage. Again; one pupil uses Gray's botany, and another Wood's. One of those authors uses one term for some botanical variety or species, and the other uses another term. There are three graduates in that list, whose botanical papers depend on these meanings. You can not expect us in the little time we get, giving in the academy some three months to practical botany, to become thoroughly acquainted with it. Then again in relation to sensitive plants. Books have been written about them. You can't expect a person of 16 or 17, who has been studying about three months, to be able to answer such high questions as these. I agree with Principal Emerson emphatically, we need something of reform. The three established causes of trouble are algebra, Cæsar, sometimes botany, and American history. If the pupil graduating would find it harder to pass the higher examinations, he just got a bare chance on the Cæsar paper. Here we get the most difficult questions. I have protested again and again against it. Sometimes we got some return for it in the next paper, sometimes not. I don't think there is proper uniformity in regard to certain of those papers. That warned quite a number of us principals, not feeling sure we were entitled to hold back papers of those who did not pass

those examinations. If we can not accept these as tests, what can we do, when we give a fifth of all our spare time to these examinations? Therefore, I think with many schools the question has arisen, How shall we conduct these examinations, if we can not conduct them as class examinations? That is the way it presents itself to my mind. It is a difficult work made more difficult.

Sec'y Dewey.— Of course there is no difference of opinion as to the desirability of getting prompt returns. We saw the difficulty, as it has already been suggested and we have a distinct board of examiners. That great change the regents have already made. We separate that work entirely from the executive work and put the examiners by themselves in a separate room. That point has already been attended to.

There was a call for greater care in making the papers. There is no question whatever that that is a very important thing. The regents have recently added to their force two experienced principals, and we have the papers carefully revised by them and by those who make the papers, for the purpose of weeding out those slips. There are no living persons that can attend to all these papers and not make some slips. Provision has now been made for that. I speak as freely as you can in this, for I never touch these papers in the examinations department. With the force at our disposal, we have the most experienced men to make these examination papers and they hardly merit this criticism. For this we have provided a distinct department. The work has increased so much that our force is wholly inadequate. But now look a little on the other side. This last year we found that many new schools came in, and an uncommonly large number of pupils had taken these examinations. The proposition was made to have two examinations instead of three. Answering our communication 150 of you insisted that there must be three, and 155 insisted they must have two. You have been asking for additional subjects. That has been met. You ask for greater care, for more subjects and for four instead of two examinations yearly, and with the same force we had before! It is the meeting of an irresistible force with an immovable body. One or two of our best people have broken down from this. We can not do this without more money from the legislature. We are weak financially. You vote with entire unanimity that you want all these subjects at all

times of the year. Is it wise to go to the legislature and ask for money enough to employ sufficient competent people to do this work? You can not get it done and employ boys. You must have competent men and pay them a fair price. In order to get quick returns this must be done. I say Amen, with all my heart. But you must face this: If you get quick returns from the examinations when we send out 113,000 papers for a single examination, if you get quick returns for 320 schools, how can you expect, with our present force, that the papers will be everything that could be wished? You want the work done thoroughly and well. It is possible to do it only by employing an army of temporary outside examiners, say 100 to begin with. Is it practicable or desirable? That plan was tried with a few and was sharply criticised. The sentiment seemed almost universal that we ought not to send these papers out of the office. To do as you desire, trained examiners must be employed; our force is insufficient, and it is not every man that can do that work.

Question:—What would be the answer to this practical question: The result in a paper in American history is nearly the reverse from the result in three other papers on other subjects in history. What in your opinion would be the best thing for the office to do in that case?

Sec'y Dewey.—Do you mean it is so?

Answer:—A paper is sent out in American history and in several schools perhaps 90 per cent fail. I don't say it is hard. I have other objections to the paper. What do you think ought to to be done in that case?

Sec'y Dewey.—I think a paper of that sort ought not to pass this board. If that were a fact, my presumption would be this: Those who made the paper made a mistake.

In case of any doubt we will do whatever will make it just and satisfactory to reasonable principals. Whatever the cause may be, if there is not a fair chance we will allow a new examination.

Prof. Fagan.—I am afraid this has deviated a little from the original question. As this matter is under discussion, and our worthy secretary said we would have to have an appropriation to meet the demand, I have drawn this resolution, which I present to the Convocation for its consideration.

Resolved, That in view of the fact that at present great delay and inconvenience are experienced in making the returns of credentials from the office of the regents to the principals of academies for examination work done by them, it is the sense of this Convocation that the next legislature be asked for an appropriation of money whereby the board of regents may be able to engage permanently a sufficient number of examiners to expedite the return of said credentials.

Resolution seconded. Question called.

Inspector F. J. Cheney.—At this late hour this afternoon I rise with some hesitation to speak. I sustain a little different relation to the Convocation than ever before, and those of you who know me well know it must have been very difficult for me to keep my seat in the midst of a discussion going on concerning these vital questions we have been considering. The secretary in what he has said this afternoon has so clearly explained himself and the office of the regents that I doubt not every one of your minds is assured, if it has not been before, that an attempt at least will be made to treat every one of us fairly in all of these various questions. I am no longer the principal of an academy, but I have been such so recently that I am in direct touch with all the difficulties that have been presented in these discussions. I sympathize very heartily with those who have trouble with these examinations. I have felt them in my relations as principal of an academy and therefore what has been said has come to me with a great deal of force from such men as Principals Emerson, Sawyer, Allen, and those others who have charge of important schools. Since on the results of those examinations so much depends, I can see very readily how tremendous these questions are in reference to them. I think Secretary Dewey has made it so plain, that everyone must feel there will be a great effort on the part of the Regents' office to eliminate the difficulties in the future. Everything can not be done at once. When you remember what we have asked for this afternoon, how many examinations, how many subjects in which to be examined, how many examination questions to be made out, and when you remember that on nearly every question that has come up for consideration on which there has been discussion, there has been no agreement at all unanimous, you must conclude that it is a very difficult thing for the office to do all the things asked for in a way that will suit the convenience and preference of

every one of the schools of this great state. I speak as a principal. I want to say this much, and I think every one of you will affirm it, that never have I made a request of the office here that has not been treated with the greatest courtesy, and whenever it has been possible to grant that request, and not in any way interfere with the schools throughout the state, it has been granted If any principal has had a different experience with the regents and secretaries, I hope he will not hesitate to state the fact. All who have had occasion to speak of the matter have testified to the same thing. While no longer a principal, I sympathize with those who are. Very soon there will be "a chiel amang ye takin' notes." I shall be out among you. I go to you as a former principal, with my sympathies alive in your behalf. I shall endeavor to look at the questions as you look at them. I believe that this is the purpose of the office. Heaven help me, I shall never forget I was a principal and had the same difficulties as confront you! After getting through with this discussion, after this Convocation shall close, after you have poured out this immense amount of information for the office and then do not get all you ask for, no doubt the regents will hear from you as they have heretofore. But I want to urge you, when I come among you, to tell me your troubles. I want you to remember I shall come to you as your friend. You know the Chancellor made his inaugural address last evening. I don't know but you think I am trying to make one. But I have stood with you so often in behalf of these things which you are now contending for that I could not keep still. My good wife said I would have to be chained if I was kept in my seat this afternoon. But I am going to go among you, not as entering battle, not to criticise what you do, knowing you are doing the best you can, but as your friend to help you if I can, as one who had these same difficulties you are having, and will continue to have. I trust the relations we shall sustain to each other in the future, will be as cordial, intimate and as happy as they have been in the past to me.

Prof. Fagan.—I am sorry the gentleman who has just sat down did not propose the passage of my resolution. I was sure there would have been a gentleman in the Convocation who would propose its passage. I did not want to leave the Convocation and forget the fact that there is such a thing as a Convocation of the University of the State of New York. I had the pleasure while

in the senate to be a member of a committee in immediate contact with the regents. I know through that committee that a great deal can be done whenever requested by the regents. I was in close communication with them all during my experience there and know what can be done in that capacity. This can be brought to the committee of Way and Means, and brought up also in the senate where Senator Sloan is chairman of the committee on Finance. I exhort you as representatives of this Convocation, when you go to your homes take with you the spirit of your resolution, and write to your representatives in senate and assembly to force the passage of this appropriation for the regents, for the specific purpose of helping the principals of the various academies who are so troubled by the delay in their credentials. You will find that a sum will be placed in the hands of the regents, large enough for examination work, and that that delay hitherto experienced by you will be removed as well as the embarrassment which the secretaries and other officers of the regents have to suffer at the present time.

Resolution unanimously adopted.

Secretary Dewey read the regents' new ordinance for return of books and apparatus, and that defining equivalents allowed for medical student examinations.

Chancellor.—Before announcing the recess, the hour of which has arrived, the Chair desires to state to the Convocation that nothing but the most important business at the semi-annual meeting of the regents, has detained him and his associates so long from the interesting discussions that have proceeded in this room.

Thursday evening, 8 p. m.

Chancellor.—At the close of the address of President Bartlett this evening, a reception will be held in the library, to which the members of the Convocation, and their friends, and all others interested in the cause that summons us here, will be most heartily welcome.

The ancient legend of Dartmouth was *Vox clamantis in deserto.* Our distinguished friend will find this evening, I am sure, these words are seed dropping not only into fruitful, but into cultivated soil. It is a great pleasure to us that President Bartlett, of Dartmouth, is here as the guest of the University. It is a great honor to me now to introduce him to your respectful attention.

STUDY OF THE ANCIENT CLASSICS

PRESIDENT S. C. BARTLETT, DARTMOUTH COLLEGE

My theme was already selected and announced, when I learned that certain phases of the same subject had been ably discussed before this body within a few years, once indeed but two years ago. I might have reconsidered my choice of theme but for two considerations: First, because those valuable discussions would neither be traversed nor repeated but supplemented by my course of thought; second, because the still unsettled state of public sentiment demands further enlightenment. When our oldest university, although against the earnest protest of the other New England colleges, has come to require, for the degree of bachelor of arts, no Greek in its curriculum; and so excellent an institution as the Johns Hopkins, no Greek at all, the subject has lost none of its freshness and importance. It will be my aim to antagonize no one and to disparage no branch of education, but to set forth, mainly in a direct and explanatory way, the value of the ancient classics in a course of higher education, with implied suggestions upon the method. By the study of the ancient classics I mean not merely the study of the Greek and Latin tongues, but also of what they comprise, suggest, and unfold. I may be permitted to say, that the subject has been with me a matter of long and earnest thought, careful observation and inquiry, while I have served as a teacher many years, in common school, academy, college and theological seminary, besides enjoying important intervals of practical professional life enough to dethrone the "idols of the cave." I shall endeavor to give, so far as I can, the results of my experience, observation, thought and inquiry, in its total impression. I propose to deal with it as a matter of fact and not of rhetoric. These thoughts, it may be needless to say, have been already presented to the students of Dartmouth College,

Let us then suppose that a young man has the time, means and desire for the best general or "liberal education", as distinguished from, or as preliminary to, a merely special one. Let us also suppose these classical studies pursued in their full capabilities.

Let me first, however deal with a very common and popular objection. I heard it last from a prominent professional man, himself a college graduate. He had been nearly 30 years in the hurry and whirl of a large medical practice. His high college

rank and his professional ability gave it much seeming weight with his audience. In its briefest form it was this: "What use does the man make or get of his Latin or Greek in his after life"? This was also the burden of the objection of Mr Charles Francis Adams. Certain practical results we will consider in due time. But meanwhile we will answer this question by asking some others: How many students will, in their after life, make any direct use of their algebra, their geometry,— plane, solid, descriptive, — their trigonometry and surveying, indeed, of any mathematics beyond the ordinary processes of arithmetic? How many will directly use, except for the purpose of teaching, their mineralogy and geology? How many, except specialists, their chemistry? To what economic use will they put their metaphysics and ethics? their Anglo-Saxon, now so strongly urged as a part of English study? What proportion of the graduates of New England colleges will have occasion to speak French or German to any considerable extent? How many will use these languages extensively, even for literary or scientific purposes? It is obvious at once that we cannot rule out the classics by any such criterion, or we at the same time rule out all that constitutes a high education and a genuine culture. We must then find some higher aim and meaning of an education than the practical and tangible application of its several constituent parts in the very form in which they are acquired. We are compelled to view it in its adaptation to expand and elevate the whole man; to unfold on every side his human capacities; to give him mental breadth, alertness, discrimination, comprehension and adaptation; to place him in full relation to his environments and antecedents, and to humanity in the past and in the present; in a word, to make him something more than a mechanism that works along a groove, namely, a versatile man, cultured and accomplished, wide-reaching, many-sided, much enjoying, and broadly influential.

For attaining this end many of us, after long and careful observation and reflection, do not believe that modern progress and discovery can offer any line of study which shall supersede the study of the ancient classics. No single consideration explains their value. The reasons are manifold, and must be viewed in their combined force. So various are the influences thus exerted, that it is to the last degree difficult to set them forth as they deserve. I will endeavor to present the case as it lies in my mind,

and, however inadequately, to gather up these influences in several broad groups.

1. Classical studies furnish a high and varied discipline, because they involve the study of language in its highest forms. No intelligent man questions the general importance of linguistic studies. Why? Because language, that marvelous thing, is the incarnation of thought,—the thought of a race. "It is", says Jewett, "an aspect of man, of nature, of nations, the transfiguration of the world in thought, and also the mirror in which they are reflected". An American writer calls it "fossil poetry". Dean Trench adds that it is just as truly fossil ethics and fossil history; and he quotes approvingly the statement of another great English writer that "there are cases in which more knowledge of more value may be conveyed by the history of a word than by the history of a campaign". Such discussions as those of Max Müller go far to sustain even this last strong statement.

But this — the reconstruction of human history and human thought as embodied in speech — is not the main point in view. I have in mind the many, continual, and ever varying mental processes through which the young student passes and repasses in the wise and thorough acquisition of a foreign language of a high order. It forms a complete system both of the lighter and the heavier mental gymnastics, adapted alike to his earlier and his later juvenile years. In this dealing with words, he is accustomed easily and from the first to the vital habit of generalization and abstraction, and the careful tracing of divergent lines of thought in derivation. He is steadily trained to exact discrimination. He is accustomed in every sentence to the practice of analysis and synthesis, from the simplest to the most difficult. As he not only recognizes the nicely balanced grammatical relations, but decides which among the various possible meanings of the terms is admissible and suitable, and adjusts all the several and often complicated connections of the sentence so as to seize and reproduce *the very thought of the author*, the mind over and over goes through all the processes of what is called moral or probable reasoning, that balancing of probabilities which forms the sole kind of reasoning on evidence and in common life. It is incessant induction — a perpetual solution of linguistic puzzles. The mind thus passes through all its modes of activity. It is the student's

own personal activity, his own work of investigation and discovery. The effort ranges, according to circumstances, from the lowest to the highest. It has trained and it has tasked how many of the acutest intellects. I think we may safely say that no other study or class of studies carries the young mind habitually through so many processes that form it to pliancy, accuracy, and power. This is the great and paramount excellence of linguistic study.

Nothing is to be said in disparagement of mathematics. Pure mathematics, however, is never inductive, but always deductive. Given this, and that follows. It is admirable to concentrate and hold the attention, to train to certain modes of high abstraction, and to a certain kind of imagination. And there has been at times a tendency to undervalue it even more than classic studies, and to eliminate it too much from a course of required study, to the disadvantage of the student.

Nor are the sciences to be depreciated in the slightest degree. As information they are indispensable. To the leaders in science they are fields of the broadest and often the most remarkable inductive reasoning, as well as the most careful observation. Useful as they are to the learner, however, they do not present to him such a range of *spontaneous* mental activity. They are more largely matters of careful memorizing, with more or less of observation and analysis, but under the immediate guidance of another mind to a foreordained conclusion. Their reasonings, which consist largely in classifications and generalizations, have been wrought out by a few select thinkers, to be for the most part followed and accepted by the learner. And it should be added that, with noticeable exceptions, the great and safe reasoners in the natural sciences have been men of liberal education and classical training.

In enumerating the mental processes called into action by the study of language, nothing has been said of its effect on the memory, because it needs no remark. Nor need we pause to show in detail how its habits of nice discrimination stand related to taste and culture, besides the other modes in which classic studies conduce to these ends.

Still further: in the act of translation, especially from languages copious in thought and expression, all the resources of our own tongue may and should be made to pass habitually in review, and thus the student trained to the complete mastery and accurate

use of his native tongue. No method could be more effectual, may I not say, none so much so; and if this end be not in good degree accomplished, as it must be confessed it sometimes is not, it must be by reason of slovenliness in the teacher or dullness in the scholar. The best training in idiomatic English that I ever experienced was gained in this mode under an accomplished professor in the translation from a Latin classic. The vast majority of masters of English style have had more or less of classical education, and the rare exceptions, such as Franklin and Lincoln, have sometimes done their best to find a close substitute,—Franklin by translating and re-translating the English of the classically taught Addison, and Lincoln by long protracted efforts in shaping and re-shaping, over and over, his sentences, till they exactly expressed his thought in the tersest and clearest form. Dr A. P. Peabody has placed himself strongly on record in this matter, thus: "It is not a matter of mere theory; it is perfectly easy to detect the absence of classical training in a writer. There are undoubtedly exceptions, but so few as not to disprove the rule. In many years' experience as an editor (of the N. A. Review) we never failed to detect a difference in favor of contributors who had received a classical education, and in some cases, and with reference to writers of superior ability and reputation, we discerned the deficiency in that regard before we otherwise obtained knowledge of the fact". This statement, it will be observed, is not made concerning the study of language in general, but distinctively concerning the study of the classic tongues.

It is scarcely needful to remark that the benefits of linguistic study, most of them, do not come except in connection with the study of some foreign tongue, for the obvious reason, among others, that we must have some means of comparison; and in order to appreciate fully the native language which envelopes us, and which we breathe as an atmosphere, we must view it from some outside standpoint. It was Goethe who said, perhaps too strongly, "He who is acquainted with no foreign tongue, knows nothing of his own". The general principle is too generally admitted to require further discussion here.

But why preeminently the classic tongues? Because they, especially the Greek, although the Latin is closely akin, are the most highly organized, most systematically developed, most homogeneous, and, in a twofold sense, *finished* languages. This

concerns the languages as languages, waiving for the present other considerations of great weight. For inasmuch as a language embodies the life and thought of a race, it will be high or low, broad or narrow, refined or crude, according to the character and experience of that race. The original language of the Sandwich Islands and the dialects of the North American Indians rise no higher than the level of their lives, manners, and modes of thinking, and, except as matters of curiosity or scientific comparison, deserve no attention from us. But the old Greek race stands confessedly in the forefront of nations for subtilty, variety and versatility of genius and achievement. "Hellas", says Felton truly, "as the boldest illustration of unity in the largest variety, stands alone in the history of civilization". We might almost say with Wilkinson, "There were never any better soldiers, never any better sailors, never any better colonists and traders, never any better sculptors, painters, architects, never any better orators, poets, historians, critics, rhetoricians, philosophers, mathematicians, never any better leaders, statesmen, diplomatists, never any better gymnasts, any better gentlemen, any better wits, than you find among the ancient Greeks; and certainly, in proportion to the number of the whole people, never so many eminent in the various ways thus indicated".

Now this many-sidedness stands incarnated in the language itself, which in the combined qualities of precision, subtilty, flexibility, fullness, symmetry, suggestiveness, vivacity and power, has never been surpassed, if equalled. Hence its peculiar claims on the student; hence its ineradicable hold on the admiration of men. Among modern foreign tongues the German probably approaches it nearest in copiousness, regularity, flexibility, and a certain kind of precision, and in force. But besides other great relative disadvantages, which will presently appear, it falls behind the Greek in symmetry and system of development, in homogeneousness of constituent materials, in harmony and finished completeness. It is a noble tongue, but, for these reasons in part not a substitute for the Greek. And in so saying I shield myself behind the authority of German scholars. Our distinguished and adopted countryman, Dr Schaff, has tersely said of the Greek, "It is the most beautiful, rich, and harmonious language ever spoken or written". And the central faculty of the University

of Berlin have declared that the study of the German is not an equivalent for the Greek. No writers have been more ready to admit their indebtedness to the moulding influence of Grecian studies than the great leaders of German literature: one has but to think of such as Lessing and Winckelmann, and the five men that lived side by side in Weimar — Herder, Wieland, Schlegel, Schiller, Goethe. These men were more than half Greeks. Inasmuch as the value of the Latin, the congener and heir of the Greek, though by no means its equal, has not been called in question, I pass it for the present without further remark.

Did the time permit, much more might be said on the study of the classic tongues as a means of intellectual training, the most varied kind of mental gymnastics.

2. This study familiarizes the student with the most brilliant literatures of the world. We suppose some progress made and a wise progressive teaching. For undoubtedly the study of the ancient classics has been greatly prejudiced by inadequate methods of instruction. While the language can not be mastered without the grammar, too often the grammar has been made to master the language, and that, too, not always grammar in its highest forms and functions. As there comes a time when, except for the specialist, the mechanics of grammar, so to call them, must give way for its principles, so there should come a time when the grammatical drill should be considered mostly outgrown, and when grammar itself should be subordinated to language and its relations, and especially the language to its contents. This view was too long lost sight of. Endless attention to a mass of intricate rules, technicalities, exceptions, subordinate and sometimes doubtful speculations, took the place of a living appreciation of the world's great writings, in all the aroma of their beauty, grace and power. This unceasing grind was extended even to the finest poetry. Thus in a little text-book published not quite 30 years ago by a distinguished classical teacher "to give broader views", the first line of the Æneid is accompanied by some 64 questions chiefly of this technical sort, and the first line of the Iliad by 32. While all this process was going on what became of Virgil and Homer?

But there were bright exceptions. I knew a Greek professor about that time who so taught the Iliad to his classes that they emerged from his instruction with the firm belief that there was

scarcely such another poet since the world began as Homer. On the other hand there was a more distinguished scholar, his contemporary, of whom a prominent pupil in afterlife, on reading an excellent review written by him, remarked, "I was his pupil in Homer in college, and for all that he taught me in the class, I should never have dreamed that he considered Homer's Iliad anything but so much Greek, to be ground out very fine with grammar and dictionary. As for its being literature and being poetry, he never let me guess that he knew the Iliad in any such relation. And here this noble review shows how fine and true his literary appreciation of Homer was. I am indignant". He tells the story well. In like manner I have been cognizant of the teaching of the finest Greek tragedy by a professor educated in Germany, who was so absorbed in minute and unimportant technicalities, in the mechanics of the verse, in pet derivations often improbable, in philological comparisons, more earnest in proportion as they were doubtful, in baseless questionings of the genuiness of certain portions of the text, and the like, as to pay almost no attention to the qualities of the poetry.

Now as John Milton wrote to Master Samuel Hartlib, "Though a linguist should pride himself to have all the tongues that Babel was cleft into, yet if he have not studied the solid things in them he is no learned man". And inasmuch as, in the words of another, "there never has been anywhere else in the world so much writing approaching so nearly to ideal perfection in form as among the Greeks", and as the Romans caught largely of their spirit, so should the modern student also. In proportion as he makes the requisite progress, he ought to know and appreciate these masterpieces of literature, and discern the qualities of great writing. Why should he be so absorbed in the details of grammar and the mechanism of language as to overlook the graphic power of Homer? Why not feel the beauty and often grandeur, of Virgil, and the fine qualities of his epic as a whole? So throughout the range of classic study, why abandon the kernel for the shell? I have known the skillful teacher, for example to compare the storm description of Virgil with those of Thomson, of Homer, and of the Hebrew poet (Ps. 18: 7–16), with equal pleasure and profit to the class. And I have known the famous oration of Demosthenes to be so unfolded to a college class, in its force of argument, its skillful arrangement, its mastery of facts and docu-

ments, its incisive style, its vivid narrative, its keen antitheses, sparkling points, grim wit, merciless jibes, and sharp dilemmas, its lofty tone and bursts of eloquence, its rolling, crested climaxes, its firm hold on the nation's pride and the popular heart, and its solemn undertone and steady refrain — a dauntless struggle against wicked men and adverse gods,— till the young men said, "We know what it is to study Greek."

When the Iliad is statedly read as a great epic poem, the Promethus Vinctus as a magnificent tragedy, the De Corona as a masterpiece of oratory, the Peloponesian War as a great history; when the singular felicity of Horace, the artistic finish of Tacitus's Agricola, and the condensed keenness and power of his histories, are seen and felt,— then will the young student, in addition to the gymnastics of language, have gained a literary knowledge, insight, and culture not to be surpassed, if equalled, in any other sphere of study.

3. The study of the ancient classics brings the student in contact with the great sources of literary and historic influences, and places him at the central point of survey through the whole range of highest human attainment and achievement.

I here leave out of the account the early sacred literature, with its divine basis, which has mingled so mightily in the movement of later history, to speak of the purely human elements. Unquestionably we find the chief human factors of modern civilization in the old classic influences. There were, indeed, older agencies,— Assyrian, Egyptian, Chaldean, possibly Hittite,— from which the Hellenic race borrowed largely; but it borrowed not only to idealize and to transfigure and to multiply, but to communicate, circulate and transmit. It put its own royal stamp on the mind and minted product and gave it perpetual currency. We find here the type of all modern thought. Here began true poetry,—epic lyric, dramatic, idyllic. Here history first took its modern form. The two great schools of philosophy were first represented here. The geometry of to-day comes down 2,000 years from the Greeks. Art in some of its forms reached its climax, oratory its height, and political life took on its occidental type. And partly through the Romans all these, with important accessions, were transmitted to us.

The history and achievements of these two classic nations thus stand out before the world as do those of no other races. That

history and that literature have become the great unfailing source of reference, allusion, and derivation, the one large inheritance of modern civilization, the common bond of the commonwealth of letters among all nations. The career of no other race, whether German, English, or French, ever will or can stand in such central and universal relations. The lapse of time cannot displace it. To be conversant with these literatures, therefore, is to stand at the radiating point of modern development, to hold the clue to the influences that have shaped its course, and to know literature and history as an organic whole.. It is the literary outlook that belongs to a centrally and roundly educated man,— a man of broad, coherent and philosophic culture; a kind of knowledge, the lack of which is so often deeply felt by those who have it not, and so easily recognized by those who have it.

The late George P. Marsh, while most earnestly asserting the claims of our own language to profound study, as he well knew how, yet declares that as a means of that encyclopedic knowledge which is one of the most imperious demands of modern society, an acquaintance with foreign, and especially classic, literature is indispensable. And, a little later he interrupts his argument for the English to say,—"I do but echo the universal opinion of all persons competent to pronounce on the subject, in expressing my own conviction that the language and literature of ancient Greece constitutes the most efficient instrument of mental training ever enjoyed by man; and that a familiarity with that wonderful speech,—its poetry, its philosophy, its eloquence, and the history that it embalms,— is incomparably the most valuable of intellectual possessions". Such weighty words from such a source hardly require to be supplemented. We pass naturally to add that

4. The classic tongues furnish the key to a vast range of modern knowledge. This consideration, however subordinate, carries weight.

Four prominent languages of modern Europe — the French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese,— are lineal descendants of the Latin. In every sentence of them the eye catches the lineage of the words. The student who knows the Latin has an immense advantage in learning any or all of them at his pleasure. The difference in ease of acquisition on the part of two classes of students of equal capacity, one of which knows the parent tongue

and the other does not, is matter of common observation with instructors. It might almost be said that he who would master two or three of them would save time by learning the Latin first. Indeed, no less a person than Max Müller, has said it: "Any one who desires to learn the modern Romance languages — Italian, Spanish, French — will find that he has actually to spend less time if he learns Latin first, than if he had studied each of these modern dialects separately, and without this foreknowledge of their common parent". Undoubtedly the aid is great. Even in the German, though not a descendant of the Latin or the Greek, whoever pursues it for scholarly uses will find such an amount of classic words subsumed into it as to form a perpetual stumbling block, and to require a special lexicon, without some knowledge of those tongues.

Very striking and important is the well known relation of the English to the classic tongues. The Greek element in its structure, though less, is considerable; but the Latin element is large. Estimates differ. Trench reckons that of 100 parts of English, 60 would be found to be Anglo-Saxon, 30 Latin (including derivations through the French), and five Greek. Marsh finds 65 per cent of native origin in the Bible and Shakespeare, and in Milton's poetry only 33 per cent Anglo-Saxon. Thus the man who is moderately familiar with the ancient tongues has a great advantage in the knowledge of his own, especially as it appears in such writings as Milton's, and is often saved the necessity of referring to his dictionary; or when he refers, he far more easily remembers

The Greek is also remarkably connected with all modern scientific nomenclature. It is, has been, and apparently will continue to be, the one great source from which are drawn in every direction the terms of science. Geometry, physics, chemistry, botany, anatomy, surgery, physiology, mechanics, mechanism, and manufactures, even, fall back upon the Greek. The knowledge of it is a striking advantage to the scientific man, for, as Dr Peabody remarks, it gives him the mastery not only of the terms in his own specific line, but a clue to the nomenclature through the whole range of the sciences. Of course, he cannot tell in advance definitely what is the exact application of the name, but let the knowledge be once given, and it is ever after retained with the utmost ease. A young classical student once listened to a course of lectures on anatomy with no preparatory or collateral study;

and a very able medical student, who made the study a business, but without the knowledge of the Greek, spoke to him with strong emphasis of his far greater facility in retaining and reproducing the anatomical terms. Without such help such a task becomes a sheer, hard struggle of the memory with a confused mass of isolated unmanageable names. These technical terms in the English language are numbered by thousands, and even tens of thousands. In Dana's geology one can count more than 2000 of them, of Greek or Latin derivation; and they are increasing with every advance in invention and discovery. The scientific man who, without a knowledge of these tongues, is familiar with the terminology of his own department, will still labor under a disadvantage in the ability to grasp easily the phraseology and discussions of the wide circle of the sciences.

It thus appears, and will more distinctly appear in the sequel, that the attempt to restrict the uses of classical study to certain professions is a grave mistake. The benefits thus far enumerated overleap all professional lines, and apply with almost equal force to all high education. The clergyman has indeed an additional pressure to know the language in which the New Testament was written; but the discussions of our time on the New Testament text have passed beyond the confines of the clergy.

It will be observed that these benefits are not solitary, but conjoint and cumulative. They are presented in their intrinsic value, and not by way of contrast to other studies. Nothing is to be said in disparagement of the modern languages. There can be no question of their utility. But it is distinctly claimed that they cannot take the place and fulfill all the functions of a higher education. Which of them combines all the uses thus far indicated? Enough of each for the purposes of a general education can be acquired, especially by one who has had a classical training, without detruding the classics. But if he is thoroughly to master any one of them, he will hardly do it at school, in connection with other necessary studies. In order to use a foreign language like a native, he must either be put under a foreign governess in his childhood, or in his youth or early manhood throw himself boldly into a foreign residence. In the school or the college, as he can but take a survey in outline of the circle of the sciences, so he can make a good beginning and some proficiency

in certain modern languages; and when the need comes, he will haul them in hand over hand. I have known a young classical student by himself to take up Italian, and read through Tasso's Jerusalem and Aminta, and enter upon Dante in the leisure of three months.

5. An education which includes classical studies tends to a wider range and a higher scale of success in life.

For the several reasons that have been indicated, it gives a man a more varied and versatile capacity of action and a broader scope. A wider field thus opens before him from which to choose. What happens to the young graduate when, as frequently is the case, he goes out for a time to teach, is typical of his life prospect. As a teacher he is not limited to one line or sphere, but he is or can be fitted for any branch that offers; for he has learned how to learn or to superintend the circle of instruction. Just so he looks out on life, with his diversified and rounded training, to run, not like some locomotive on its narrow track, but like a steamer on the broad ocean, making his port at will. Other things being equal his life chances are enlarged. His choice of a calling becomes less constrained and to a far greater degree optional. He will always have more strings to his bow, and will find himself fitted for the opportunity that shall offer.

The difference in mental caliber and equipment usually shows itself from the beginning to the close of the preliminary education, as it has fallen under my observation, alike in the different ability to cope with abstruse themes of study, and in the diverse quality of the graduating theses of the two classes of students. One who has occasion to attend in close succession the graduating exercises of two institutions, one of which includes the extended study of the classics, and the other of which excludes it, cannot fail to be struck with the marked diversity between the two in clearness, point, vigor and range of thinking.

This last mentioned fact leads to the further consideration that the classical training tends not only to a wider range, but to a higher quality of success. If we have rightly described the influence of these studies, this effect is a natural one, the result of a more supple intellect and of a larger circle of intellectual vision and relationships. Other things being equal, it should make the man a keener, more vigorous lawyer, a preacher of greater resources, a more intelligent and many-sided physician, a

more discerning and far-reaching statesman, a safer scientific reasoner, a wiser, abler and more fertile journalist, and a business man, if not of greater capacity, yet of higher dignity, and of far more enjoyable, elegant, satisfactory and useful prosperity.

Now it certainly is not easy to isolate the cases so as always to trace effects to causes, nor to say what might have been with the same man under other circumstances. It may also be said that the other forms of education have not always enjoyed the same opportunities, at least in the public schools. But there are certain obvious facts or classes of facts, that arrest the attention. And though there are, we are glad to say, many noble exceptions, where native talent and untiring application have overcome all obstacles, sometimes even the lack of any school education, it remains undoubtedly true that a large majority of the great lawyers, great statesmen, great preachers, great journalists, great physicians, great educators, great leaders of thought in every line, have been men of classic education. The same thing is true of the mass of scientific men who have distinguished themselves as men of wide and sound generalizations, and of ability to set forth, defend, and propagate their principles. This difference of training not seldom marks the dividing line between broad reasoners and advocates of narrow hobbies. After making every allowance for the fact that the higher education in schools has taken so largely the classical form, yet bearing in mind that it is the very small minority that they educate, and that so many other avenues are open to enterprising youth in scientific institutions, in military and naval schools of high order, it would seem to be no accident by which the intellectual leaders and broad thinkers, the men who have left their mark on the course of human thought in every direction have fallen and continue to fall into this small minority.

It would be a wearisome task to cite adequately from the history of the past the multitude of significant instances in proof. They meet us in like manner at present. We may look forth at random and the same general fact meets us. It was surely by no accident that the three men in England who a few years ago stood respectively at the head of its statesmanship, its judiciary and its literary culture, Gladstone, Lord Coleridge and Matthew Arnold, should have been both illustrations and vigorous defenders of classical training; that nearly all the leading lawyers

of New England and nearly all the judges of its supreme courts, should be classically educated men; that most professors in the best medical schools, even specialists should be college graduates; that the leading geologists now living (Dawson, Dana, LeConte, Newberry, Hitchcock, Winchell), and even the chief English and American astronomers and physicists of our time (Tait, Thompson, Clerk-Maxwell, Lockyer, Proctor, Young), should be, like the second Herschel, and, so far as he could, the first Herschel, men of liberal education. It was no accident that the government under which we live should have been mainly shaped by men of classical training: Richard Henry Lee, the mover of the vote for independence, was noted for his classical turn and attainments; George Whyte and John Adams, his main supporters, were graduates of William and Mary, and of Harvard; Jefferson, who drafted the Declaration, was a man of college training. The eight debaters in the Constitutional Convention who, as Chancellor Curtis has said, "exercised the largest influence", were, all but Franklin, college men.* The three writers who successfully defended the Constitution before the public, were college men.

It would seem to be no accident that the nation's one-and-a-half per cent of college graduates should, in times of political turmoil, furnish, as is said, one half of the nation's public men at Washington; that men of liberal education are found in such disproportionate numbers at the head of specialist institutions; or that so many far-seeing business men and men of wealth should be giving their sons, even if designed for business, specialties, or if for political life, a liberal education, that in all these spheres they may have the power of thought and speech, and breadth and culture, whereby to dignify and enjoy their wealth and success; or that Dr Hofmann, professor of chemistry at Berlin University, should never have heard a student from the gymnasium express a wish that he had received his training in the realschule, but had heard many a realschule student grievously regret that he had had no part in the training of the gymnasium.

Now the significance of such exemplifications lies in the fact that we are not put to the hunt to find them, but that they come in

*King, Randolph, C. C. Pinckney, Wilson, Morris, Madison, Hamilton. Of the thirteen other names mentioned by Hildreth as taking part in the debate, eight were certainly college men, and the ninth was the founder of Dickinson College.

groups to meet us, in whatever direction we turn. Thus when, not very long ago, in a scientific periodical which steadily disparages classical studies, five great names were selected as "having, each of them, bequeathed to posterity a new realm of knowledge", namely, Linnaeus, Darwin, Lyell, Lavoisier, Descartes, it appears that Linnaeus wrote treatises in Latin, Lavoisier was a graduate of the College Mazarin, Descartes of the College La Flèche, Lyell of Oxford, and Darwin of Cambridge. Notwithstanding numerous exceptions, freely conceded, such constantly recurring facts and classes of facts, turning up everywhere at random, show the steady drift.

But perhaps the most effective testimony on this subject is still to be found in the statements made to the public 10 years ago by the 38 professors of the faculty of philosophy in the University of Berlin, "the central faculty", as has been truly said, "of the most illustrious university of the best educated nation in the world". It was deliberately made, after 10 years of experiment and observation. And though many attempts have been made to weaken its force, it stands before the world unretracted and, so far as I can see, unrefuted. The directness and explicitness of their testimony, in its absolute unanimity, seems to admit no evasion. For they make statements both general and specific, the main facts and the subsidiary ones, founded not so much on the views of the classicists as on the testimony of the scientific, mathematical and modern language instructors; the professors of chemistry affirming that the classical students, though starting in the university, of course, with less knowledge of facts and experiments, soon outstrip, "almost invariably carry off the honors", "are mentally better trained, and have acquired a higher ability to understand and solve scientific problems"; and the instructors in the descriptive natural sciences, even in the higher mathematics, in the English language and in the German language and literature, in metaphysics, in economics and statics severally giving similar opinions and similar reasons, some asserting in very strong terms the superior capacity, insight, and grasp of the classical students.

Not only did Dr Hofmann (professor of chemistry) in his inaugural as rector of the University, publicly declare in its behalf, as a result not admitting "a moment's doubt that all efforts to find a substitute for the classical languages, whether in the

mathematics, in the modern languages, in the natural sciences have been hitherto unsuccessful; that after long and vain search we must always come back finally to the result of centuries of experience; that the surest instrument that can be used in training the mind of youth is given in the study of the languages, the literature, and the works of classical antiquity"—but all the members of this faculty placed on record their settled judgment that any other kind of education, such as "is obtained in the realschulen of the first rank", is "inferior, not alone because ignorance of the Greek and deficient knowledge of the Latin interpose great obstacles to the pursuit of many branches of study which are not by law closed to graduates of the realschulen, but also, and above all, because the ideality of the scientific sense, interest in learning,—not dependent upon nor limited by practical aims, but ministering to the education of the mind as such,—the many-sided and widely extended exercise of the thinking power, and an acquaintance with the classical basis of our science and our civilization, can be satisfactorily cultivated only in our institutions of classical learning". To pronounce the unanimous opinions of these 38 men, so formed and so stated, to be altogether mistaken, would be to suppose one of the most marvelous hallucinations of the time and of any time.

For these several conjoint reasons, or groups of reasons do I believe in the thorough study of the ancient classics; because it furnishes a singularly varied discipline, as the study of language in its highest forms; because it familiarizes with the most brilliant literatures of the world; because it brings in contact with the great sources of literary and historic influence, and places one at the central point of survey; because it gives the clue to a vast range of modern knowledge; and because its entire influence tends to give a wider range and a higher kind of success in life.

In view of all these facts and considerations, we need have little fear for the permanent decline of classical studies. Popular attacks may create transient distrust. Many may be induced to try the experiment of excluding them from a course of higher education; but the experimenters may be the losers. Others will adhere to the tried and approved method, perhaps with modifications; and unless past experience ceases to be a guide, they will, as a rule, in the race of life, in the situations that call for

breadth, versatility, keenness, and power, continue to be the winners. The old Homeric tale may tell the story of the future: When the enemy

> "Made head against the Greeks, the Greeks stood firm,
> Nor ever thought of flight. As when the wind
> Strews chaff about the sacred threshing-floors
> While wheat is winnowed, and before the breeze
> The yellow Ceres separates the grain
> From its light husk, which gathers in white heaps,
> Even so the Greeks were whitened o'er with dust
> Raised in that tumult by the horses' hoofs
> And rising to the brazen firmament,
> As toward the fight the charioteers again
> Urged on their coursers. Yet the Greeks withstood
> The onset, and struck forward with strong arms."

ARE COLLEGES REQUIRING TOO MUCH FOR ADMISSION?

PRINCIPAL O. B. RHODES, ADAMS COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE

Are colleges requiring too much for admission is a question that springs from the now conceded fact that the period of education from the secondary school to the end of the college course is too long for the practical man of affairs, or for one who must still complete a professional course of study. It is claimed also that it is too long as compared with that of the German or French schools. President Eliot of Harvard, in an admirable paper published in the *Atlantic monthly* for August, 1888,* is authority for the statement that the average college student is nearly 23 at graduation, and that the elaborately educated professional graduate cannot support himself until he is 27 or 28 years old. This makes a heavy burden upon all except wealthy parents, and a still heavier burden upon poor students who partially or wholly support themselves, prolonging for them the period of education beyond the average limit, and postponing by so much their time of entering upon a professional life.

The increased requirements for admission to colleges made in the last few years undoubtedly added a year to this period of education, already too long from this practical point of view.

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*Can school programmes be shortened and enriched?

But the favor with which these requirements were met would seem to show that the need was felt, and that the movement was not a false step, but the natural result of a true process of evolution in American education. Harvard led the way in these additions to the preparatory course of study, and she now leads the way in protesting against the length of time consumed in the entire period of education. To shorten by a year the very course which has been lengthened that much would be to acknowledge a *faux pas*, and to beat a retreat, leaving the preparatory course where it was a few years ago. The recent plan for shortening the course of study at Harvard submitted to the board of overseers by the faculty would seem to encourage the anticipation of college studies by students at the time of their admission, and to facilitate the attainment of the degree of bachelor of arts in less than four years. This implies that even more can be accomplished by students in the preparatory course whose average at entrance into Harvard has reached what President Eliot regards as the "extravagant limit of 18 years and 10 months."

"They order this matter better in France," said Sterne in "The sentimental journey," and this is what we have been hearing of late from every quarter in regard to education. In Germany the course is still more comprehensive, elaborate and difficult. President Adams of Cornell University says that in comparison with the American, his "fellow-student in Europe, equally well trained, and even more thoroughly prepared, is able to begin his professional practice at 22." He must then leave home for the university at the average age of 18, a year earlier than the average American youth who graduates from college at 23. President Eliot prefers to compare the French boy with the American because politically, socially and industrially France and the United States closely resemble each other. The comparison is decidedly to the disadvantage of the American boy and his course of secondary instruction, even in the best schools of the Athens of America. The French course is more serious, more substantial, more stimulating, and requires greater exertion on the part of the pupil than the Boston. If we seek for some natural advantage of the French lad over the American we fail to find it. "The French boy," says President Eliot, "has no possible advantage over the American boy in strength of constitution, intelligence or endurance; on the contrary, he is not so large a boy as the

American, on the average, and he is not so well fed." If this is true, and the French boy really accomplishes more than the American in the same course of study, we must indeed confess that "they order this matter better in France," and that colleges are not requiring too much for admission.

The comparison of the American boy of the same age and a similar course of study with the German boy is just as decidedly in favor of the latter. For Principal Payson told us last year, in his excellent paper on "Economy of time in common schools," that "the ordinary German gymnasium boy of 14 or 15 has accomplished a great deal more intellectual work than his American contemporary." And we might add more than his French contemporary, for President Eliot, in the paper referred to, selects the French national program for study rather than that of a German gymnasium, "because the work done in German secondary schools is more comprehensive, elaborate and difficult." Of the acquirements of the German boy Principal Payson says the American boy "would stand aghast at such erudition, and would probably regard his German friend as some extraordinary being to be approached with awe and handled with care." Something of this sense of awe might well steal over the American teacher also, for Mr Walter Gerould in the June *Academy* has just told us that he has seen boys "thus trained, at the age of 20, in the University of Berlin, leave full-fledged professors from this country completely discomfited and unable to follow their brilliant work. Verily we are obliged to confess that they order this matter better in France than in America, and better in Germany than in France. For their youth accomplish more in the same courses of study at an earlier age, and, what is more, they have acquired a far better knowledge of their own language and literature, and the modern languages, than the American boy ever gets. Neither can we discover any natural advantage over him unless it be that the French boy eats less, and the German boy drinks more. From this comparison we are forced to the conclusion that colleges are not requiring too much for admission. Theoretically, there is apparent no reason why the American boy should not at an earlier age than at present accomplish the work of our preparatory course for college, which is less than that required in European programs.

But practically, there is after all a wide difference in conditions. Our education must be American, adapted to our conditions and

necessities, and must be naturally evolved from them, not imported from abroad. How far the superior results of instruction in France and Germany are due to better teachers, greater incentives, and to the more perfect unity of the entire system of education we cannot compute. Neither do the advocates of the adoption of the German system, at least, consider fully the wide difference between the relations of the government to the entire system of education in Germany and in our own country. There the hand of national authority, paternalism, or regimentation, as Professor Huxley calls it, is everywhere felt, and is in marked contrast to the individualism and lack of unity and authority in the American system. In France, too, Matthew Arnold tells us that, in answer to the question, "Who gives you all these fine things?" the child is taught to say, "The state." A lack of harmony and unity in the entire system of American education, from the common school to the university, is apparently the chief cause of so much waste of time and effort. Many schools that are obliged to do preparatory work are limited on all sides. They are imperfectly equipped, inadequately endowed, feebly sustained, and parsimoniously helped by the state.

But the worst limitation of the preparatory schools is in the age and conditions under which pupils take up the preparatory course of study. The average age of students entering Exeter is sixteen and one half, a year lower than the average age of 100 academic students holding the preliminary certificate, in a fairly good academy, in the state of New York. The conditions of admission are practically the same: "Some knowledge of common school arithmetic, writing, spelling, and of the elements of English grammar." Of these requirements President Eliot says that they might reasonably be made of a boy leaving the primary school at eight. If in the righteous judgment of a great educator Exeter scarcely be saved where shall the great mass of preparatory schools appear? They are simply compelled, like Exeter, to take the student as he presents himself, and, unlike Exeter, to carry him along, to the detriment of the few who might easily be ready for college at the age of 17.

Under these severe limitations the question, Are colleges requiring too much for admission? becomes more difficult to answer. Theoretically, the work can and ought to be done even at an earlier age than the present average. Practically, it cannot,

except for picked boys and the favored few. Shall we beat a retreat, or maintain the advanced requirements which have met a felt need, until these unfavorable limitations are removed? It is of more importance to American education that the limitations be reduced and removed than that the present standard of admission to college be lowered. So much has been done in recent years to improve primary and early secondary education in New York that we have every reason to believe that at no distant date the average age of admission to college may be reduced from 19 to 17 and the work be even better done than it is at present.

To secure this result there is need (1) of better primary and secondary instruction, and a more complete unification of the entire system of education. This need will not be felt unless the incentive of a worthy ideal be kindled in the minds of preparatory teachers and pupils, and the value of such an ideal in a democracy is very great. "For it is one of the prime weaknesses of a democracy," says Lowell, "to be satisfied with the second-best, if it appear to answer the purpose tolerably well, and to be cheaper—as it never is in the long run."

(2) We must be freed from our perverse and wicked devotion to that old fetich of the common school, common English studies. We are slaves to arithmetic, geography and grammar," says Principal Payson. The French boy devotes to arithmetic only one-third of the time the American boy devotes: "Yet for practical purposes the French are quite as skillful with numbers as the American," says President Eliot. We want more mental arithmetic, and less arithmetical puzzles, and the student brought earlier to geometry and algebra. In grammar we want more language and literature and less logical analysis and word-mongering, a larger vocabulary and more and better ideas, which an earlier acquaintance with good literature implies. Curtius, in his History of Greece, says of the Greek boy that "When he had learned to read and write, he read the poets: he learned to declaim them, and with the words appropriated to himself the wealth of their subject matter. Reason and feeling, taste and judgment, were developed by his habituating himself more and more to the ideas of poets of high and universal reputation." Something of this ought to be implied in language study in America, as it is in France and Germany. The paucity of ideas in the common English studies to develop reason and feeling, taste and judgment,

is one cause of the inability of the student to take up the preparatory course with an intelligent interest. As President Eliot tersely puts it, "There is not enough meat in the diet." In geography there should be a rigid pruning of non-essentials, and a closer connection made of the subject as a culture study with history, literature and life. Our uncommonly common English course needs vivifying with ideas to maintain interest, and to carry the pupil along without weariness by the inspiration of the subject-matter and the consciousness of progress. It needs not so much multiplicity of knowledge as the simplicity of a better, more vital, more serious, more profound knowledge, which shall lift it out of its Philistine rut of the common, into the more stimulating course of the uncommon, where the youthful mind may run and not be weary, may walk and not faint.

(3) We must sacrifice another fetich in education, both primary and secondary, the hard and fast line of percentage marks. The letter killeth here as elsewhere. Mechanical courses, teaching, examinations, marks, and much writing tend to mechanical results. Flexibility of mind is lost sight of, and rigidity of mind is the outcome of what President Eliot calls "an exaggerated and wholly unnatural accuracy of attainment." And flexibility of mind is just what is needed to begin the preparatory course and to complete it with that stimulus of personal interest which comes from contact with profound and beautiful ideas of high and universal reputation, ideas which still appeal to reason and feeling, taste and judgment, ideas too often obscured by aiming at "an exaggregated and wholly unnatural accuracy of attainment."

(4) While the preparatory course does not include too much, and can be completed with credit by picked students at the age of 17, the limitations of many schools and students ought not to be overlooked. Great progress has been made, and we are capable of still greater. "We do not propose," says Emerson, "to make a statue out of punk." But there is a vast amount of punk in human nature to be rejected, or worked up into something better. A high ideal for the young is of immense importance, and the school needs the present requirements. But a wise consideration, and possibly modification, of the tests of progress in studies will undoubtedly continue to be made as experience suggests. The chief difficulties in the preparatory course are in Cæsar and in Latin and Greek composition so-called. They

lack the stimulus of ideas which make the wealth of subject-matter in other studies. Too much time is required to pass these subjects, and it may fairly be questioned whether, in the present condition of educational matters, they are worth the time that must be given to them. Somewhat less of Cæsar, in amount, with easy examinations, and something more certain and definite in Latin and Greek composition, would perhaps abridge the time required for preparation without lowering the true ideal of classical study. But the final adjustment of the studies of the preparatory course may safely be left with those who have done so much to improve the system of uniform studies and examinations in the state of New York.

Discussion

Prin. Henry P. Emerson.— On the part of the schools I can certainly say that I think the requirements are not too high; as to the effects upon the pupils of the high schools, I am of a like opinion. I am not aware that any question had ever been seriously raised as to whether the requirements were too high. I have never heard any such question raised. It seemed to me the question ought to have been put in this way: Are New York colleges requiring too little for admission? Then there might have been some discussion about it. It is indefinite in any other way. Are colleges? Colleges where? Colleges in New England or in New York state? We all know that the colleges in New England require at least a year more for preparation than those in this state. When the Chancellor, in his opening address, spoke of the teacher who took more pride in preparing two scholars for Harvard or Yale, than eight for colleges in New York state, I suppose he only expressed the feeling every classical teacher in the state has felt. I don't think it has wholly passed away yet. The reason is, the requirements in this state are so low, it is no special honor to prepare students well for examination. I suppose the question is in regard to New York colleges. Are colleges in the state of New York requiring too much for admission? If that's it, I ask, which colleges in the state of New York? I am not informed here. The larger colleges when they find their halls filling with students, put on the brakes a little and erect a standard, but everybody knows the small colleges have no particular standard, and they admit almost anybody who presents himself.

I would like to ask another question, in answering this question put down on the paper, and that is, How are you going to know what the colleges require? You cannot tell by consulting their catalogues. The colleges put down glowing generalities in their requirements so as to compare favorably with other institutions. When we come to what they absolutely require as to preparation, it is a very different question. Principals find out by the pupils admitted. I remember a few years ago at a teachers' conference in Syracuse, complaint was made that Syracuse University was admitting scholars after a year or two of study in the high school. I have heard it is done in Rochester. I know it is done in some cases in all the colleges of this state. I know with regard to Cornell University this complaint has been made repeatedly. We have been battling for half a dozen years, trying to stop the leaks by which students, doing poorly in our schools, would, when we put the screws on them, slip out and appear in Cornell, with a tall hat and cane. [Applause.] So that we are engaged in generalities when we discuss this question, and I have simply to say that to me there is not much question about it. Colleges are not requiring too much. I don't mean simply on the teachers' side of this question that this is the right answer, but I look to the good of the pupil. I have been engaged now for 16 years in a work that has made me familiar with young men who are getting ready for college, and I can say that in all that time I never knew of one single instance in which a worthy, aspiring young man was ever kept from going to college because the requirements were too severe. If cases were very numerous, I should have heard of them, I think — at least of one. I never knew of a case.

Warden R. B. Fairbairn.— The gentleman who has just sat down has made some assertions which it appears to me he ought not to make, unless he has the most specific proof of it before his mind. He said that the large colleges of the state pretend to prescribe a certain course of studies upon which they examine persons for admission, but the small colleges admit them on almost anything. I deny it. I not only deny it for St Stephen's College, which is put down as a small college, but I deny it emphatically, and the gentleman has no business to rise on this floor and make any such assertion about the small colleges of the state. I think if he were to examine the catalogues of the colleges of this state,

he would find he had no more ground for the assertion in regard to any of the colleges, than he had in regard to St Stephen's College. The subject is a matter of history. It may be 25 years ago the subject of entrance examination to college came up for discussion, and the representatives of the colleges had separate meetings from the kind of meeting which is taking place in this room now. And it was for the specific purpose of discussing the entrance examinations. One of the propositions was that applicants for freshman class should appear before a committee of the board of regents and be examined, not only to get into the college through that examination, but to get a certificate, and that certificate was to carry them into any college in the state. That was one proposition. The Chancellor of the University of the City of New York at that time, Dr Ferris, made this point: "If you want to drive from the colleges of this University the students of the state of New York, adopt this measure." That really killed the proposition of sending all applicants to the regents to be examined. But we did agree on a system of examinations for the colleges, and I think if that gentleman will examine the catalogues of the colleges of the day, he will find in most cases it stands as it did then. There was to be a preliminary examination in geography, arithmetic, grammar, and I think that there was also history. Those four subjects were to be a preliminary examination. Then as to mathematics, they were to be examined in algebra and geometry; algebra to quadratic equations; geometry, the first six books in most treatises, plane geometry; in Latin they were to be examined in four books of Cæsar, four or six orations of Cicero, six books of the Æneid, the eclogues of Virgil and Sallust. Those were the requirements in Latin. Then in Greek, three books of the Anabasis and three books of the Iliad, together with grammar and prosody, and perhaps composition. That was agreed upon and that is carried out to-day. No man goes into the freshman class of St Stephen's College, that does not go through that examination agreed upon at that time. I would like that to be noted. That continued for 10 or 15 years and in most colleges up to to-day.

Now, a change has taken place in this respect. It came, I suppose, chiefly from Harvard College, in New England, and now latterly from Columbia College in this state, and possibly in some other of the colleges of the state; namely, an examination in

English. For instance, they are required to write a composition on a subject connected with some book that has been before proclaimed to be read. This college puts forth a program of examination for the freshman class and names some portion of a book or a play of Shakespeare. The students are expected to read this play or book and be prepared to write an essay on any question connected with it that may be offered at the examination. I do not think there has really been any other addition than this. The Latin and Greek continue the same. I think in some colleges there has been required a modern language, balanced, however, by an abatement of Latin or of Greek. That is to take its place. Really then to all intents and purposes the requirements for freshmen classes in the state of New York continue to-day as agreed upon by the presidents of the colleges 20 years ago, may be 25. I have been in communication with presidents and professors of other colleges by letter, and my associates have been in communication with them, and we have no reason to suppose that they have not carried out very faithfully this program agreed upon, so faithfully that no man has any right to get up on this floor and say what that gentleman has stated. He ought to retract it. That is the condition of affairs in the state of New York to-day.

But a further question has come up, which is this: the distinguished President of Columbia College the other day, in making a report of his institution, said they had discovered that a person had left college in the sophomore year, and had come back and asked to be examined in order to get his degree. It led them to see they could lop off one year and thus induce those students to stay and get their degrees by shortening the time. Now, the President of Harvard College has discovered something of the same. He is supposed to have set this whole matter agoing, and now he has discovered that it is occupying too much time, and therefore he proposes to lop off the last year so that students could get their degree at the end of a three years' course. I have not the least objection for these gentlemen to do whatever they please, but they are casting it in the face of the small colleges that we do not come up to the standard. They raise these standards for themselves, and expect us to follow. They are mistaken. We maintain that at Annandale we have a proper division of subjects, that is to say, there is a school training, a

preliminary training up to the freshman year, and that preliminary training carries the student over those subjects I have named here this morning as agreed upon by the presidents of colleges of this state, and approved by the board of regents, and I ought to observe that we all agreed, and have adhered to our agreement, to take the certificate of the regents for their examination in these subjects named as preliminary for entrance to the freshman class. Students come to us with tickets certifying that under the direction of the regents they have been examined on these subjects. If they bring that certificate, we accept it. If those other colleges see fit to do as has been stated, let them do so, but they should not cast it in the teeth of the small colleges, that they are not coming up to the standard. They are adopting precisely this entrance examination and carrying it out faithfully, as any student will find who asks to be admitted to the freshman class. It is specifically put down in our catalogue. I am only sorry the gentleman did not read it more correctly than we have reason to suppose that he did from what he said. He will find the requirements put down on that program clearly and distinctly, each book and the amount of each book.

Prin. J. C. Norris.—Notwithstanding the opinion of our venerable friend, I know my brother Emerson is right. I have been compelled to feel deeply in this matter.

A certain college in this state, whose requirements are very high on paper, takes our boys long before we are ready to let them go, when they have had only a very small preparation in Latin and Greek. One young man whom we were fitting for a New England college, who lacked one year of having enough Latin and Greek for a respectable preparation, who had not read a line of Virgil or Homer and only a few lines of the Anabasis, this New York college took from us and admitted to a full classical course.

Another young man in no way fitted, who had only about a year in Latin, who knew very little of algebra or geometry and who could not fully pass the regents' preliminary examination, was advised by the president of that college to come and they would receive him without examination.

I think Principal Emerson is wrong in regard to Cornell University. I think what he said applies to the past rather than to the present. But the course taken by some of the small colleges of this state not only in admitting but in urging boys into their

freshman classes gives not much encouragement to us in trying to hold our boys through a careful preparation.

Prin. Joseph E. King.—It appears to me it may be very possible for honest colleges that set themselves to do very good work, and are very conscientious about their degrees and in the tests which shall be given to the candidate before receiving the degree, to be yet very liberal in their conditions for admission. I have known instances of that kind. A college can cut a man off if he fails to keep the right pace, if he fails to make up his shortages; and it seems to me unjust to decide the whole question on an individual case, or to condemn a college because some genius has got in on scant preparation and been allowed to go through with the class. It seems to me it is not the spirit of this Convocation, or the spirit of the republic of letters, to be particularly hard upon the younger colleges. We all had to be children before we were adults, and it occurs to me that the pace set by the older and more powerfully endowed colleges is very likely to be kept, as it is very likely to give *éclat* to the whole college system of our state, particularly when we have this great University, which takes us under its maternal wing. It pained me to hear a gentleman say on this floor that "it would be foolish for the regents or the legislature to charter a college if it did not have an endowment of $500,000; that $100,000 is a mere bagatelle." I happen to be the trustee of a college outside the limits of this state,—have been for two generations nearly,—which began 60 years ago without any endowment except some buildings it had entered into, purchasing them for $33,000. But Wilber Fiske was at the head of that college, and he made a reputable and respectable college of it without an endowment. Moreover that college could say, as did the resentful constable in Massachusetts, when the bully offered to shake him, "Shake me," he said, "but remember when you shake me, you shake the commonwealth of Massachusetts." There was a powerful church behind that little college. To-day it has an endowment of $1,500,000. It has five noble buildings on College Hill, and 1,500 alumni. But it began small. You heard reference made to a college yesterday; some of us perhaps never before heard of it, the St Lawrence University, yet I take it, from the average common sense in this Convocation, that no one who heard its president give in his admirable report of that college, graduating to be sure only its 19 scholars, but felt a swelling in

his heart of profound respect for the college that had such a president, I don't care whether it is endowed or not. Said Horace Greeley, riding once with the affluent Dean Richmond in a splendid passenger coach and looking at its upholstery and ornamentation, "Why don't you put such coaches on all your trains and take good care of the people"? The blunt old man replied, "Mr Greeley, why didn't your blamed old Tribune begin with 350,000 subscribers"? The young colleges can grow, and let them be regarded as members in good standing of this Convocation when they come here the peers of the best of us, and not be taunted in general, sweeping terms as "small colleges". God forbid! We have all been young, before we grew old.

Prin. A. C. Hill.—Very conflicting statements are made regarding our educational condition in the state of New York. At times our system is spoken of as a model for the world, at others it is denounced as exceedingly defective. The condition of things, as it seems to me, is this; almost any New York boy would rather go to a New England college than to a college in this state, if he was free to choose. I think we are largely responsible for this form of "fetish worship". We do not speak well of our own institutions. The representatives of colleges get together and deplore the fact that there are no secondary schools in the state worthy the name; that a boy must go to Exeter or some other school outside the commonwealth of New York for the best training. Then the representatives of secondary schools get together and denounce the colleges for their low requirements and work. In this way we cast discredit upon one another. There are a good many poor preparatory schools in the state, and a good many inferior colleges. But there are also many good fitting schools and many colleges that we need not blush for. A spirit of mutual helpfulness between the schools and colleges is needed; more encouragement and less criticism one of the other.

There is one assertion that is often made that needs explanation. It is why boys in France and Germany get so much more education before they are 16 years of age than do these American boys? Are our boys not so bright naturally as the French or German boy? One answer seems to be, that with us an education is an afterthought. It is not looked upon in this money-getting age and nation as the natural and necessary thing. Our boys wake up late to an ambition for an education. Thus several

precious years are lost and our boys find themselves hopelessly behind their German cousins, in the pursuit of knowledge.

Prof. J. Scott Clark.—I came here this morning resolved to keep still, but I feel it my duty to say a word in answer to one or two things that have been said here. My friend Emerson says that a boy who could not or did not complete his high school work, was found in one of our most prominent colleges with a hat and a cane. That contains one-half the truth. It is misleading. If it did not contain *any* truth, people would not be deceived by it. Boys not well prepared were found in Cornell. That phrase, "being in college" is very indefinite. Now, I think that if we should follow the boy who was found at Cornell, we should very soon see him take his hat and cane and go home to his mother; as I have been informed that, last fall, they sent about 60 boys home to their mothers that way. And that is not the only college where it was done. The curse of the New York colleges is the special course. And let me say, gentlemen, we in the college faculties feel that just as much as you do; but it is like the original curse on humanity, it is a very hard thing to get rid of. If you could sit in the college faculties and look at the matter as we do, you would see the difficulty. Where can we draw the line? Shall we say, "admit no special student"? Then, if a young man who has been out of school eight or 10 years, but who is scholarly, comes to us and says he wants to do special work in biology, we must say, "you can not come". Otherwise, how shall we draw the line? I am happy to say that the special students are being weeded out. It is becoming less and less common for students to be hanging about, taking a study or two, until they prove themselves of such character as to deserve dismissal.

I make the statement deliberately, that in at least two, I think in more, New York colleges the actual requirements to-day for admission to the regular courses, are as high as in any college in the United States except Harvard. Let me give two points in proof of that. Ever since 1874, to my certain knowledge, men have gone from these colleges into Yale, Amherst, Williams, and the best New England colleges. Where, for instance, a man has completed the freshman year in a New York college, he has gone to Yale and has entered as a regular sophomore there, to my knowledge, with the first division of his class. I can name men who have done it. It has been done in other colleges. Men have

gone from a complete freshman year in a New York college to enter Yale, Amherst, or Williams. During the past year I know of a New York college that received two men from Dartmouth, two from Amherst, one from Wesleyan, and one from the University of Vermont, all in the classical course. These men were certified regularly as having completed the work in those colleges in that course. After coming to the New York college, in not one of these cases did these men average above, or even up to the average of their classes in the New York college. It seems to me that these are two points that have a decided bearing upon this case. It is true, as Brother Emerson said, that we have had "high school students". Forgive us our sins and we will forgive you some of yours. But don't go about saying that a man is "in college", allowing it to be understood that he is in a regular course in that college; because, in the nature of the case, at present, we are almost compelled to let a man come and study two or three month and retain his standing as a special student, before we feel authorized to send him home. Don't let it be understood we receive everybody that way. Make a distinction between a man who comes to the college and hangs about as a special students and the man who comes and enters the course and stays there. Every year the New York colleges are dropping men more and more. As I say, we recognize our shortcomings. But I protest against this indefinite statement about men being in college as misleading to those not familiar with the facts in the case.

Prin. George M. Smith.— Those of us who are working in the smaller secondary schools see a side of this question that perhaps does not appear to the college men, perhaps not to the teachers in our higher and better secondary schools. I know something about the men who are working in the smaller academies and high schools, and I know, sir, they are doing their best to elevate the standard of scholarship in this land. We are running across one thing, and it takes only a single instant to injure our schools for more than a year, in fact for more than two. We are doing our best, I say, to raise the standard of scholarship. We are met by difficulties on every hand. We find social attractions, we find distractions of every sort that tend to take away the time and attention of our pupils. We find it difficult, sir, to maintain in such schools the standard of scholarship our colleges demand. We are doing our best to meet that demand, but let one of those

colleges admit one of our pupils before they have completed even the preparatory course laid down in their own catalogue, (and who has taught for 10 years in this state or another that has not met just that instance,) and you have done something to demoralize and degrade the standard of scholarship in that school that can not be undone by printing catalogues and advertisements demanding high attainments.

One word more. When we use the term "small college" we do not mean any disparagement. For a choice between a small and large college, I would take the small one. The small colleges are doing a grand and noble work. That is true. But when we meet in a Convocation like this, we are to discuss our mutual difficulties. That is one of the reasons for being here.

I think the colleges should maintain their standard of admission. I think nothing can be done that will help our schools so much as the knowledge of the fact that no student can get into a New York college unless he has completed the preparatory course laid down in the catalogue.

One thing more. I meet it often. I read in the report of the eloquent address of last night, *this:* the results of the German gymnasium were almost idealized by the speaker. I think that is about the size of it. They are idealized. I have seen a little of the German gymnasium, if you will pardon me for speaking of personal experience. The German gymnasium is an entirely different thing from anything in this land. It takes its pupils at nine years of age, keeps them nominally for nine years, practically 11 and 12. While a student may graduate at 18 or 19, the average is 21 and 22. In the year 1888 it was 22. He knows Greek and Latin well. He knows mathematics. But, sir, I was once asked by a graduate of the gymnasium, a man who was preparing to take his degree as Ph. D., in a German university within a few months, if we "had much difficulty with the Indians in New York." Well, the German boy at 16 may know more Latin, but he does not begin to have the general intelligence, the comprehension of what is going on in the world, the common sense of the American school boy of that age. And for giving a broader and better education, give me the small college every time in preference to the German gymnasium. They are ahead of us simply because their course is confined to a few subjects. I appeal to anybody who has associated with them, who is

acquainted with them, or who has studied in their schools, that while they do know Cæsar, Cicero and the other classical authors, no less an authority than a committee of the physicians of Alsace and Lorraine, on the occasion of the institution of the great Strasburg University, or rather its re-institution, asserted that the graduate of the German gymnasium could not be depended upon to observe correctly, or to state in clear and definite German the results of his observation, if he made any.* And, sir, no less distinguished a scholar than Dr Preyer,— whose work you know from his volume published by the Appletons,— in one of his later addresses, has made the most bitter, most searching, and most damaging attack upon the whole system of classical training.

Prin. F. S. Capen.— I feel it is but just to say with reference to the other colleges in the state of New York, aside from Cornell, that what Mr Emerson said with reference to Cornell, is also true with reference to them. He stated that what was true with reference to Cornell two, three, or four years ago, is not true now. I say that statement is also true with reference to Rochester, Syracuse, Colgate, and many other colleges of the state of New York. When a college is on a wrong course, it is with it as it is with an individual. When it decides to switch off on a right course, and is on the right course, it takes people four or five years to find it out. I believe what was said by Mr Clark, of Syracuse, that the difficulty here is with the special courses. In answer to the question, "Where shall we draw the line," I would like to suggest that the colleges draw the line at first on age. There they can draw it. Don't allow a boy of 16 in your college to take a special course in civil engineering. I have known boys of that age, who could not do respectable work in an academy, to claim that they were pursuing a course in civil engineering at Cornell. Boys not out of their swaddling clothes, come home with tall hats and canes, and claim that they are pursuing a course for a degree in civil

* The reference here is to the Gutachten der ärzlichen Verbände in Alsass-Lothringen, 1882.

"Wir können auf Grund unserer Erfahrungen versichern dass nicht wenige der Medizin Studierenden, trotz zehnjähriger Vorbereitung auf gelehrten Schulen, unfähig sind einfache sinnliche Erscheinungen schnell und genau aufzufassen, das Beobachten sprachlich richtig Wiederzugeben und mit der nötigen Gewandheit Urtheile und Schlüsse zu bilden." *u. s. w.*

See Zeitschrift für Mat. u. Nat. Unterricht, Heft 5, 1888.

engineering. This is all wrong. What are they doing in civil engineering. They are studying algebra and geometry. But they are there in this special course and they are circulating the fact. They expect to blossom out as civil engineers in about six months.

Prof. W. H. Maynard.— I should not take part in this discussion if I had not been called upon. I am not intimately enough acquainted with college matters to give a wise opinion, as my work in instruction is mainly connected with the theological department.

I am convinced however, that our New York colleges ought not to lower their requirements for admission, and yet it may be wise to admit persons of intellectual promise who have an insufficient preparation. The conditions imposed should be removed if the class-room work is up to the average. I recall two instances of men admitted with a very insufficient preparation. One became the salutatorian of his class, yet there were in that class some 25 who had received as thorough a preparation as is given in any academy of the state. Some of the 25 indeed, had been leaders in their academic classes. The other was valedictorian of his college class; a class largely composed of men thoroughly prepared, but his iron constitution and iron will placed him after a few months in the front rank. I have mentioned these two instances because I happened to have a personal acquaintance with them. I have no doubt that other college officers could mention like instances. I leave the subject with this suggestion: In case a student of advanced age or of limited means, is not fatally deficient, and if his academic principal has confidence that he can go through a college course successfully it may be wise for the college to admit on condition, but not insist upon the performance of the condition in case the student's class-room work is up to the average. Where a man is advanced in age or where his means are limited, the refusal to admit frequently means that the man will never receive a collegiate education.

Sunday is made for man, not man for Sunday; the machine for man, not man for the machine; a college to help men to liberal education, not to secure admiration for the perfection of its machinery.

Prof. Benjamin Ide Wheeler.— Allow me in the interest of clearness to say one word of explanation, commonplace as it may

be, concerning that great sin of Cornell's past, which receives its annual attention at this stated convocation of the saints. That sin was no fault of the old-fashioned collegiate department of the university; there the standards of admission were always held high. But in its endeavor to enlarge the scope of undergraduate training, the university introduced new courses of study with requirements greatly below those of the traditional arts course. This has been often said here, but in the interest of a perfect understanding of the situation, such as indeed does not yet seem to prevail, it must be said again. Cornell's transgression was committed not in connection with its administration of the traditional curriculum, but in its endeavor to broaden the curriculum. In the transition period, confusion was inevitable. The schools have suffered from this confusion. They have, however, I believe, suffered more than was necessary. The university made the great mistake of establishing its innovations without conference with the secondary schools, and without regard to their interests. Its new courses of study should have been based upon some form of *completed* work in the schools. It is no contribution to the cause of education for a university to duplicate instruction already provided for in the state schools. It can be only an injury to the cause of education as a whole for the university to entice pupils from the schools before some complete curriculum there has been absolved. To do so is a sin against the schools.

I wish therefore to make distinct affirmation concerning the Cornell sin under two heads; first, it was connected with a particular emergency, and does not necessarily represent a permanent state of sinfulness; secondly, every reasonable effort has been made by the university to right the wrong. The requirement for admission to the offending courses have been gradually raised, and, what seems to me of more importance, the university has decided, in admitting by certificate, to recognize nothing short of a full course in the preparatory school. The university, in other words, has decided to base its work upon the *completed* work of the schools.

But we have unfortunately been diverted from the essential issue raised in Principal Rhodes' very suggestive paper by the discussions centering around the various apples of discord which have been so dexterously and lavishly tossed over from Buffalo into our midst.

The question of the general standard of requirement for admission to college, and the question of the minimum length of the undergraduate course, which have been recently pushed to the front by the action of Harvard, are in reality, when properly stated, merely divisions of the larger question; what portions of the entire educational field shall be assigned severally to the secondary schools, to the college, to the graduate schools of the universities? The question of the length of the A. B. course is, in the main, for those who are to complete a professional training, merely a question of distribution. The universities cannot now-a-days fix the standards of learning in the various professions by any manipulation of the length of courses.

The question with which we are however properly concerned now is: shall a larger portion of the educational curriculum be assigned to the secondary schools? My own opinion in this matter is largely determined by observation of the present average age of admission to college. This has been gradually increasing, and is now too high. The encroachments of the secondary school upon the age of the pupil ought in my opinion to be checked. Until we are assured by a falling in the average age, that through improved conditions and better teaching more work could be done with the same time-limit, we ought not to talk about increased requirements. But, if it be true that the boys of England, France and Germany are farther advanced at 18 than our American boys, we want, as Principal Hill has said, to know why it is? Though loath to admit any sort of backwardness for the Yankee boy, I must admit my belief that this is, educationally speaking, a fact. It appears to me therefore, that for the present the cause of preparatory education will be best served by consideration of the causes of this relative backwardness. These causes are not particularly hard to find. A chief one is the quite common lack of continuity in the boy's training. He is for various reasons shifted from school to school, from plan to plan, and, poor wretch that he is, from method to method. Each change is apt to cost him a year. Another potent cause is dabbling, trying a term of this subject or that because his mother has a fancy it would be a very useful thing for her boy to know something about. Still another cause is lack of definiteness in the aims and purposes of preparatory instruction. The schools do not have a clear understanding with the colleges as to what is expected of

them. There is in consequence a lack of emphasis on essentials. Let me illustrate from our Greek preparation. We too frequently find that our neophytes have intimations about a large number of facts in Greek, but are sure about nothing. We want them to know something for sure. We want them to hold in absolute possession the essentials of the grammar and a vocabulary of 300 or 400 commonest Attic words for *sure*. We prefer they should know with absolute certainty the Attic forms of the 20 commonest irregular verbs, to having vague intimations concerning 70 to 100. One of the chief difficulties in the Greek preparation is the necessity of teaching within two years two different languages, the Attic and Homeric dialects under the name of Greek. If Homer must be taught in the preparatory school, and I think it probably to the detriment of grammatical certainty that it is, its idiosyncracies of form and syntax ought for the time being to be kept in the background. If we could convince the schools that what we really want is a sure acquaintance with the all-important essentials of the Attic grammar, and an ability to read by the help of a vocabulary of unusual words the simpler specimens of Attic prose, we could save, I am sure, a great deal of time and obtain more satisfactory results.

Prin. George C. Sawyer.— As was said on another important occasion, here again we find that "plain words are best." I think those who have opened this discussion are to be thanked, whether all the members agree precisely with the sentiments expressed or not. I have two or three points to bring up as a teacher in the public schools. Many years ago going to Phillips Exeter Academy as a teacher of Latin and Greek I was much impressed, as I remember, with the young men who came in from the country, how rapidly they adapted themselves to new conditions. They went to college prepared in the essentials, although many had not passed through that grinding work in the preliminaries now required in our public schools.

As to President Eliot's new plan I think it is not clearly understood. The proposition is to make the college program one of courses rather than of years. In many instances this has all along been allowed and has been constantly increasing. Now the theory is to be made to square with the practice. For some time the practice has been that a student who could finish the regular course in three or three and a half years was then allowed to

begin post-graduate subjects before graduation. Now it is plainly said to the students at Harvard University if anyone can come better prepared and can do so good work as to complete a certain number of courses, two less than formerly, in three years that young man may be graduated. If it takes others longer to finish these courses they may take another year. This is not so very revolutionary, is, indeed, the recognized method of the German universities. No harm need result to the smaller colleges from this change in those of our strongest universities who are able and disposed to carry out strictly the university plan.

Another point has been brought out here. It is a fact that in France in the lycée the boy or girl at the age of 15 or 16 years has done much more than the American boy or girl at the same age. Let us find out the reason of that, whatever the reason may be. I have a friend who has lived in France a number of years and is bringing up a family about 12 miles from Paris, having married a French wife. The contents of his letters inform me what his children are doing in school, which from the American standpoint is perfectly startling. But he seems not to think it anything extraordinary and this, because they begin early in life, waste no time and do better and more definite work. They have better schools and better instructed teachers than we have. The sooner we have in our schools as teachers graduates from Vassar and Smith the sooner we may begin to see some rise along the whole line. Until such improvements are made in our teaching corps just criticisms will continue to apply to our schools and their results. We cannot in the secondary schools do in three or four years our own work and that which has hitherto been neglected, for the reasons which I have mentioned, as President Eliot also has emphasized on several important occasions. The gist of the problem lies here, what are our boys and girls doing between the ages eight and 13 years? Mulling over a quantity of arithmetic and geography, most of it soon to be forgotten.

Let us not prize "the American expansion of character and all that knowledge of general life." Was it Froude, Mr Chancellor, who said that "general knowledge is too often but another name for general ignorance?" So it is with too many of our young people.

A French minister of public instruction once said to an interviewer, "I can tinkle that little bell at 11 o'clock and by a system

of intercommunication I can tell you just what every boy and girl in France in the public schools are studying at this hour." We may not wish wholly to imitate such a system of centralization, but it is system. It is just what there is a lack of in too many of our primary and to some extent in our secondary schools. With this lack is noticeable also that loss of time among our boys and girls in trifling with non-essentials. As a result of these failings and want of fixing upon a definite course of study at the outset and steadily pursuing it to completion, many bright boys and girls are suddenly found at the age of 14 or 15 to have been drifting aimlessly in their studies. Then they, perhaps, make up their minds to go to college, and, lo! a cry arises that they are forced on too rapidly without regard to health.

So it will continue until a more definite, well-considered system can be brought in all along the whole course of instruction and maintained. Much may be effected by discussions like these. Until then we cannot have the best results. What we want is better instruction for our teachers,— with reference to the young men and women they are training more thorough education as to the essentials. These suggestions being followed in our lower schools and continued into the secondary then can we expect to do better work with our pupils in preparing them for college and send them, too, a year earlier on the average.

Pres. J. M. Taylor.— I rise on a question of privilege. I should not think of occupying the floor for a moment this morning, deeply interesting as are the topics suggested here, were it not that I have been a little misrepresented before the conference. I would like to have them understand that I am incapable of making the representations I have been supposed to have made in regard to the small colleges, Mr Chancellor. It should have been remembered by the gentleman who referred to the remarks I made yesterday, that I was referring to the future college of the state of New York, not the college that began some years ago. I was discussing the question of beginning a new college under the authority of the regents in the great Empire state of New York, which is already supplied with collegiate institutions. I made no reference to the small college. I am a graduate of a small college. I believe in the small college from the bottom of my heart. I believe the small colleges are doing better work possibly for the first year's college course, than the large universi-

ties are doing; better, because on my theory of education, they get a better hold of the student, they give him a more careful training than the system that has crept into our large universities is liable to give him. I never make reflections on the small colleges. When I said I object to a small amount of money I said it upon the basis of the opinion that it is impossible to found a college in the state of New York to-day, or to constitute a college that shall do veritable college work and shall stand alongside of the institutions now extant; that it is impossible to do that with $100,000, I believe, and every man on this floor who knows what a college means, sir, knows it is impossible to so carry on an institution. I believe as heartily as the gentleman who has spoken in criticism of my remarks upon the theory of a college, that with Mark Hopkins at one end of the log, and James Garfield on the other, you have a college; not perhaps a college of very wide scope, but still a college; because it is man meeting man, and the best of all forces in education is the impression of a great character. But under the present conditions, which are not pioneer conditions in the state of New York, nothing but an apology for a college can be started, whether backed by a great religious denomination or no religious denomination with $100,000.

ADMISSION TO COLLEGE BY CERTIFICATE

Discussion

OPENED BY PROFESSOR H. S. WHITE, CORNELL UNIVERSITY

It was proposed that President Webster would open this discussion and would give the members some general wisdom on the subject, after which I would follow with a few remarks. I may pre-suppose, however, that the system of admission by certificate is already sufficiently well known to the members of the Convocation. I have in mind to mention briefly some of the advantages and a few of the disadvantages of this system.

*The advantages of admission by certificate, in my opinion, are as follows:

It allows the student to pass naturally and normally from the school to the university without a break in the transition; it

*College Association of the Middle States and Maryland. Proceedings of the first annual convention. Phil'a, Nov. 29-30, 1889, p. 76.

relieves him from excessive and needless strain of preparation required in reviewing anew a considerable number of miscellaneous subjects, many of which find their due place and have served their purpose in the earlier years of the school curriculum; it permits him to enter upon his university course free from the jaded feeling which often results from such a previous strain of preparation; it renders unnecessary a preliminary journey to the university, which is frequently long and costly, the sequel of which may be doubtful, if not unfavorable; it gives the applicant at any time during the year a decision as to his actual status of preparation; it may thus afford him leisure to strengthen his weak points in advance, to concentrate his attention upon the essential branches, and to anticipate occasionally a part of the work required after entrance. It tends, finally, to knit into a greater solidarity the schools and the university.

The chief difficulty arises from the lack of uniformity in excellence in our preparatory schools. This difficulty is not felt in Germany and France, where supervision of the state and a uniform administration have produced uniformity in the curriculum, so that the school diplomas may safely be taken to indicate an identical level of preparation. On this side of the water the difficulty has been partially obviated in various ways. In Canada, for instance, by a system of uniform examinations at some university, — examinations which are taken by students in the preparatory schools in lieu of graduation from those schools. In various states of the Union a system of visitation on the part of the authorities of the state university, more or less carefully guarded, prevails. In this state the system of regents' examinations also secures a comparatively uniform standard of preparation and of excellence. There is still room, however, for much improvement and enlargement of the system in the direction of more careful supervision by individual states and by the establishment ultimately of a kind of intercollegiate comity, whereby the certificates of one institution may be recognized and accepted by the authorities of another institution, perhaps in a far distant state.

An essential feature of this system in my opinion, is that all applicants for admission by certificate should first be graduates of the school from which they come. The path for admission to the university lies through the school. The path should run clear through. In this way a certain general maturity of mind is

secured, which will be of more value than the acquirement of any special attainments demanded by various institutions for admission.

"What we want", said President Adams, last year, "is not so much students who can pass certain entrance examinations, as students who can pursue successfully their work after admission".

The criticism that the system fails to discriminate sufficiently between schools and tends to reduce them to a disparaging level of equality is in part well founded, and would form a grave objection if the college or university were the center and aim of the efforts of a number of rival schools whose principal object were to enter successfully as many students as possible. This objection, however, would be lessened by making the system of state supervision more thorough and scrutinizing. In New York the system of regents' examinations, as has just been indicated, would obviate almost entirely this difficulty.

From what I have said it will appear, therefore, that my position is this: the system is good, but not perfect, and is still on trial. It may be supported and developed by the joint efforts of the various colleges and universities scattered over the country, united into a general, if informal, intercollegiate association.

Our own contribution to the task in New York state would be to guard and strengthen the requirements for the regents' examinations and the regents' diplomas. The schools and academies should maintain firmly their standard for graduation; the colleges should firmly maintain their standard for admission.

President W. J. Milne.— I suppose that every one here is very familiar with the success of the regents' examinations as prescribed conditions for graduation from high schools and admission into college, and I presume it is true that most of the colleges of this state at least regard the regents' examinations as sufficiently rigid and complete to indicate the ability of pupils to enter upon collegiate studies with success. I am not informed in regard to this matter further than that I know the impression is general that colleges do receive the regents' pass cards and their diplomas as evidences of proficiency in the subjects prescribed for entrance. I think there is a general sentiment in favor of such a standard which is a uniform standard of admission. There is a sentiment also in favor of a further enlargement of the privilege accorded academic principals in vouching for the preparation of students

who are to enter college, and I suggest that it is perfectly feasible to receive students into college on the certificates of the principals of the secondary schools, and that too without in any way lowering the standard of scholarship. There has been, and always will be probably, a fear on the part of the college authorities that the preparatory schools will send them students that are not sufficiently well prepared for the work they are to do. There possibly is some ground for such a feeling, but the ground for it is not so great as is often assumed. There are teachers who don't do their work well; there are teachers who are superficial and make their students such; but the majority of the teachers is not of that kind. On the contrary, they do their work well and are competent to say whether the students under their charge are able to enter with success on a college course. There is a general distrust among teachers, one of another, I am sorry to say. The college professor distrusts the preparatory professor, the preparatory professor distrusts the one below him, and so on through the whole list. I think it is about time somebody had confidence in somebody. I suggest that the men at the head of our academies throughout the state are competent to decide who are able to enter our colleges, and that they are honest enough to say that such persons who ought not to enter, shall not enter; and if I were to decide the question I would say, "Receive the students on the certificates of the principals."

We have heard two or three gentlemen say on this floor that students went from their schools into reputable colleges when they were not qualified to enter. I would rather have the statements of these men in regard to their students' qualifications than a diploma. Furthermore, it is not the student who can pass the best examination, who is the best. It seems to me that the most valuable thing a young man can get in connection with the certificate is the indorsement of his teacher. It will raise the standard of scholarship, raise it without a doubt. Lay upon a man the responsibility of the failure or success of students who have gone from him, lay it upon him as a personal matter, and he will see to it that only honorable, capable, worthy students are sent. That will be the result. If you allow students to enter college upon the personal certificate of the principal of the school, you get better students than you ever had heretofore. Such concessions will not result in lowering the standard, but in raising it.

When I hear so much objection from college professors to receiving students on certificates I think it is a confession of weakness on their part. It means if it means anything that if a student gets in, he is going through, because we can't get him out if he once gets in. I say take them in on the authority of this man who says they are competent. If they don't stand the test, send them home as they do in Cornell. I won't occupy time with other thoughts I had. I would have attached to the regents' certificate a personal statement by the principal of the academy or high school as to the character, the ability, the power of the student to do the work, and I would base my judgment of the candidate's fitness to enter upon his teacher's declarations rather than upon the ability to construe Latin or solve quadratic equations.

Prin. Chas. F. Wheelock.— When I was asked a day or two ago by Dr Watkins to fill the vacancy caused by the inability of one of the appointees to attend, I thought to myself that after the colleges had discussed this question and after the normal schools had discussed it, there would be very little left to add to the discussion. I am now more than ever convinced that that was a correct opinion, and I can do little more than to say essentially what has already been said by those who have preceded me.

The way in which this matter has presented itself to me is something like this: when a young man is about to enter upon a course of college study there are two important things to be considered. First and by far the most important, as I look at it, is, has he reached such a stage of mental development and maturity that he is able to carry on successfully the work of a college course? Secondly and less important, has he laid up a sufficient store of knowledge to enable him to commence profitably the study of those more advanced? There are three possible ways of determining these facts, it may be done by the college, it may be done by the teacher of the preparatory school, or it may be done by parties outside of both, for example the regents of the University. Assuming now that the three parties are equally competent as to scholarship and equally honest, the question arises, which one is the best qualified from the circumstances of the case to pass upon the merits of the candidate?

The college may test scholarship by a set examination, but the circumstances attending the examination will be such as to often render the test very defective. Many a timid boy has his faculties

paralyzed by the strange surroundings, and is entirely unable to tell the half he knows. Most of us can remember the extent to which we were overcome with awe in our first interviews with that then the most overcoming of all men, the college professor. But what value attaches to such an examination as a test of fitness to do work in the college? Two papers may be marked exactly the the same and still the writers of those papers may differ materially in their fitness. The one may be the result of one or two years' training of an acute and active mind; the other may be the laborious product of six or eight years' work of a faithful teacher. The better prepared man in the true sense of the term may often hand in the weaker paper. An examination conducted by the regents of the University in the school room with which the candidate is familiar would not be open to the first difficulty mentioned, but it would not be a test of the mental capacity of the student. The person who knows without an examination the scholarship of the candidate, and who also knows better than it is possible for any other person to know the mental capacity, the ability to do work, is the teacher who has daily for years instructed him, who has watched his growth and development with studious care during his whole preparatory course. This teacher knows better than any other person can possibly know whether or not the boy is fit to enter college. Any other examiner can only judge and that imperfectly, of the amount of knowledge that the boy has acquired. The teacher can form a very correct estimate of what he is capable of acquiring in the future, and that is what we want to know.

Two objections are urged against entering on the teacher's certificate; some fear that the boy will be entered too soon, from the teacher's desire to get a reputation for preparing boys in a short time; others fear that the boy may be held too long in the preparatory school in order that the teacher may receive more in the way of tuition fees. I do not believe that either objection is valid. I believe that the teachers in our preparatory schools are honest, and even if they were not so they are wise enough to perceive that their deeds would find them out in either case.

Perhaps the very best method of finding out the fitness of a boy to enter college would be a combination of the two, the regents' examination to determine his scholarship, and the certificate of his teacher as to general fitness.

But in conclusion I will say that I think the subject of entrance examination has received more attention than the importance of the subject merits. If the colleges will hold up a rigid system of term examinations and final examinations for graduation we shall not find boys trying to get into college before they are ready, to meet with certain disgrace after they are in. I have been told by a person who visited the Paris exposition, that at one end of one of the buildings among the polyglot directions for visitors there was written in English "Entrance in" and at the opposite end of the building "Entrance out." There are two entrances at college the entrance *in* and the entrance *out*. If the college authorities will look carefully to the entrance *out*, I am inclined to the opinion that the entrance *in* will almost take care of itself.

Prin. George M. Smith.— In discussing this question I do not think we need to go much further. The points have been well put, and in fact President Milne has completely stolen my thunder. Of course if the regents' examinations are to be accepted and to be a passport to the college gates, we need go very little further, but as I talk with college men, with normal school men, and with a great many other men, I find a profound distrust of the regents' examinations. That distrust appears to be based on this, that the examination in Homer, for instance, may come well nigh four years after the examination in arithmetic, during which time the pupil has not worked a single example, or perhaps opened the covers of an arithmetic. It is so with all subjects; they are made to spread over a great length of time, and while the pupil may present himself with the whole required credentials, he may yet be very far from prepared to go on with his work. For that reason I suppose the colleges adhere to their entrance examinations, and hesitate to some extent about trusting us to send them pupils in the way proposed. At least I know some colleges do. Now, sir, it has been well said, that we have got to learn to trust each other. Indeed, sir, I believe the best way to make progress in our schools is to give men responsibilities and then hold them firmly and rigidly to those responsibilities. And, sir, I believe you can do no more for the preparatory schools of this land than to put into the hands of their principals the power to send their pupils to the best colleges upon their word and honor. I assure you, sir, they will be very careful how they use that power. It is true here and there there will be a man who will misuse it; but there are two sides to

that question. To make a personal or pointed illustration, I know a man who is teaching; he is an admirable scholar; he knows a world of things; but there is one thing he does not succeed in knowing. While he pours out information *ad infinitum*, he never succeeds in finding out whether the pupils have observed it or not. Such a man's certificate might be of little value. I know also a college professor to whom I would under no circumstances give anybody a certificate. In that person's mind there is none of that thing so well emphasized by Prof. White of Cornell. He has no perspective. He emphasizes the exception that he has found a single time in the preparatory work, with just the same vigor and energy that he emphasizes the principle that occurs 1000 times; and if a boy or girl who comes to that college does not know those insignificant things that occur now and then, they are not in his estimation well fitted. The great majority of school principals are to be trusted, and the great mass of college professors are men far and wide above that sort of thing. We can trust each other and doing so will help us to elevate the standard of our schools. We insist we can give the desired scholarship, and for that reason some of us ask to send our pupils to the colleges upon our certificates.

Col. Weston Flint, Statistician of the U. S. Bureau of Education was called upon and said:

After listening to all the interesting papers and discussions of this Convocation, it only seems proper for me to say a word in response to your kind invitation, and I do it the more readily because of the influence your work here bears upon the educational progress of the whole country.

I do even this with some hesitation because it would have been a far greater pleasure to you to have had Dr Harris, the commissioner of education, present to give his own thoughts upon the work of the Bureau. The United States is the only country in the world, so far as I know, that has an educational bureau among its executive departments, that is simply advisory, and has in reality no executive power whatever, except in the territory of Alaska and lately over agricultural colleges and in these cases for very special reasons. The Bureau of Education has not a tithe of the authority that your regents have in New York. Though at first this may seem strange, it is, after all, in strict accordance with our views of the national control in affairs of education as in most

other matters, leaving almost everything to the various states and so making, of necessity, the national bureau simply a great educational clearing house for the whole country of all matters pertaining to the educational interests of the people. It is largely a bureau of information, and even in collecting the material for its work from the thousands of institutions in the country, the responses are only voluntary, the bureau having none of the authority of the census to secure its statistics. Yet with this very limited control the most cordial relations exist between the bureau and all the educational authorities of the various states. The idea of the formation of such a medium for the collection of statistics was first planned by the most earnest and intelligent educators of the land and their constant moral support has been the life of the bureau. The study of just such questions as you have had in this meeting has been our work, and it is with no small degree of pleasure we have accepted your kind invitation to meet in your Convocation to-day.

I think it is the idea of the Germans that the whole course of education, from the hour the child enters the kindergarten until he leaves the university, should be in the mind of the parent and teacher when the child enters upon its first hour of study, and it is this necessity for a general view of the whole subject that makes the collection of the details of the educational systems of the various states, brought together under one general review and comparison, of so much value.

What was said so admirably by your Chancellor in his address the other evening, in regard to preparatory educational work, and what has been given in the papers and discussions of the past two days show what a great interest there is in this one division of education,— so in regard to other divisions, if we may so term them.

This leads me to say that the first great work of our bureau is to get the facts, the statistics, and then make such a study of them as will make clear what these figures collected show as to the progress of education. This year we have attempted to settle some questions and distinguish more definitely than ever before the boundary lines of primary, secondary, collegiate and professional education, and it is with much interest that we find your work arranged in a like manner. Our special plan at present is to secure if possible a complete census of the secondary schools, and the relative proportion of students in the public and private

institutions of this grade, so as to show the changes that are going on in the various parts of the country; for it is evident, to even a casual observer, that the public high school has in many cases taken the place of the old private academy, in many of our smaller towns and villages and possibly in cities. It is a fact that many of these old academies are dying out. On the other hand there is the question as to the quality of instruction which the successor to the academy gives. Has there been improvement in the courses of study or change without progress? These are questions that are very important, as was well shown in your discussion here regarding secondary education, and the need of more thorough work in the preparatory schools. The classes of studies pursued and the proportions of the classical and scientific courses are also important, to show the trend of these great movements.

I mentioned the other day the work we had undertaken, of making a comparative table of the courses of study in 115 colleges and universities of the country upon 15 topics, so arranged that the peculiar strength or weakness of any institution in certain courses may be seen at a glance. This is in the same line of investigation as that discussed here and will help to bring our study courses into comparison with the German gymnasium and the French lycée.

The very interesting subject of University Extension, as now being so rapidly developed in certain lines in this country demands a hearing and a study of its methods.

There seems to be a special necessity for studying more carefully the professional schools, to see how our standard of requirements compares with those of other countries, and of this we hope to give fuller statistics and more complete results,—so of manual and industrial training, newer subjects, requiring different treatment.

The new law relating to agricultural colleges has given the bureau its first real executive supervision, as it has to report upon the annual expenditure of $600,000, increasing each year until it shall amount to $1,000,000 a year in 1900.

I cannot take your time here, so fully occupied, further than to suggest in this very brief way some of the lines of our work which seem to me to be carried on very much as your university supervision is done in the state of New York. If your system is made

effective and thorough for this state, may it not in time be a pattern for other states to follow, until there shall be thorough supervision over the higher institutions throughout the country, as there is now over the public schools. If this plan shall be carried out in all the states, and the proper aid be given to the national Bureau of Education may it not tend toward the unifying and making more perfect the whole system of educational training among the people, and in this way may not the great moral influence of such a bureau, even with its limited executive power, become in fact a controlling and molding influence throughout the republic?

MEMOIRS

HON. HENRY RUFUS PIERSON, LL. D.

Chancellor of the University

MEMORIAL ADDRESSES AND MINUTE OF THE REGENTS

[DELIVERED IN ASSEMBLY PARLOR, JANUARY 30, 1890]

Address of Chancellor George William Curtis

It is with profound feeling that I stand in this place in which for so long a time we have been accustomed to see another figure and to hear another voice, and with the highest sense of the honor of your friendly favor, I accept the great trust that you confer upon me. I cannot bring to the discharge of its duties — no man could bring — greater zeal, or diligence or devotion than my predecessor, and any successor of his may be counted happy if he shall be as tenderly remembered as we remember Chancellor Pierson.

A man of various tastes and interests and pursuits, he knew many cities and many men. Full of public spirit he held himself at the service of others, and brought to the discharge of every duty an ardor and energy which time could not wither. Others may speak of him in other relations, I knew him only as a Chancellor of the University. While the chief occupations of his life were those of active affairs, yet, like the prince who had early pledged his faith to Egeria, he was always loyal to the good genius of letters and education. Born in circumstances which did not assure him what he instinctively knew to be the opportunities and advantages

of intellectual and scholarly training, he secured them for himself. Unfavored by fortune he owed to himself alone the distinctions that he achieved. Whatever those distinctions may have been, I am sure that nothing gratified his tastes and ambition more than to stand where George Clinton, and John Jay, and Daniel D. Tompkins had stood, not as Governors of New York, but as Chancellors of the University.

The University of the State of New York is one of the most ancient institutions of the state, but beyond the very important circle of educational and academic interests it is probably the least known of those institutions. It is the creation of a suggestion of George Clinton's and a law of Alexander Hamilton's. Its original purpose was to provide a central governing board of all colleges that might arise in the state. But this purpose was modified more than a century ago, and was distinctly defined with enlarged powers in the law of 1889, by which the University consists of all the colleges and academies which may be incorporated in the state, together with the state library and state museum, and such other similar institutions as the regents may admit to the University. The regents have all the powers of trustees, with authority to adopt all rules and ordinances for the accomplishment of the trusts reposed in them. They charter colleges and academies, and they are the almoners of the state aid to academies, an aid distributed according to the results of a system of examinations in the conduct of which there were prepared and issued and revised more than 300,000 examination papers last year.

These are great powers. They contemplate a great institution in which all the schools of higher education in New York are virtually blended into one, under the government of the regents. There is no body of public servants in the state who, in view of the purpose of their trust and of the association with it of illustrious names in our history, should feel more deeply the importance and the dignity of their duty. Their work is hallowed and dignified by a long succession of distinguished men. Every regent occupies a chair which owes distinction to his predecessors. The first occupant of the chair in which I sit was John Jay; its second occupant was the elder Gulian Verplanck; its third occupant was James Kent. Each of my colleagues traces a kindred ancestry of his chair, and each acknowledges, in the only sense in which Americans can use the words, that *noblesse oblige*.

The high function of the University and its dignified tradition are recognized in the method of appointment of the nineteen regents with whom the highest officers of the state are associated by virtue of their office. The regents are elected by the legislature with the formalities observed in the election of senators of the United States. In itself this method, like that of the election of the Superintendent of Public Instruction by the legislature, is a proper acknowledgment of the importance of the trust. The only regret is that in both cases the conditions of the nomination and election bring within the range of party politics a legislative action which should be absolutely independent of politics. In the selection of a regent of the University the state should be searched for the citizen most fitted, and known to be most fitted, for such a trust. For the regents carry the standard of higher education in this state, and New York is surrounded by states which constantly elevated that standard and challenge her to a friendly competition of excellence and superiority. Should such an election degenerate into a mere political compliment the cardinal interests of education and the renown of the state would necessarily suffer.

Mr Pierson did not unduly magnify the representative character of the Chancellor of the University. Its actual function is not one of executive detail but of executive supervision. The Chancellor is the official head of the whole system of higher academic education in the state, and it is pleasant to recall that the last words which the late Chancellor spoke in this place, at the opening of the University Convocation last summer, were an expression of just and honorable pride in the representative office which he held. That he lighted and cheered the deliberations of the board by his constant and cheerful humor; that his heart was an ever-bubbling fountain of youthful feeling, and that at three score and ten his industry and the freshness of his interest were unabated, your friendly memories go before my lips to recall. We are here to take the burning torch from his falling hand and to carry it forward unextinguished. By his grave we are to pledge ourselves anew to the great trust committed to us, and to resolve in our degree and with our power, to discharge our duties in a manner, if it may be, not wholly unworthy of the illustrious men who have preceded us, and of the imperial state whose servants we are.

Address and minute of Regent Charles E. Fitch

Mr Chancellor: I am honored by your request to prepare a minute of the life and the services to the cause of the higher education of the late Chancellor of the University. In doing this, I have phrased the tribute in such simple form of words as, I am sure, he would have preferred. And in prefacing it with a few remarks, I have no set and elaborate speech to offer, but must trust to the inspiration of the occasion and my cordial esteem and affection for him for my feeble and imperfect estimate of his worth.

In reflecting upon the life tenure of the members of this board there is much which informs it with dignity and honor. In the stress and struggle of modern utilitarianism, in the democratic canons of national and state government, in the swift mutations of civil service, the board of regents is the only body, with the exception of the Supreme Court of the United States, which illustrates the conservatism of colonial and early constitutional days. For over one hundred years it has maintained the life tenure, and the legislature has invested the election of a regent with much of ceremonial significance. In this view, we cannot be insensible to the high privileges and prerogatives we enjoy, and those who have had extended service must also have that feeling of fraternity, which proceeds from long and intimate association, with kindred devotion and common purposes to attain. Certainly, that sentiment of fraternity abides with me, and never more so than in such a solemn moment as this, when sorrow for the departed blends with and subdues the pleasure of communion with the living.

For with the dignity of the life tenure and the dear emotions of fraternal intercourse, we must note the shadows which ever encompass us, and amid whose gloom we think and act. Death, in its relentless sweep, comes to all humanity. Sometimes its dread and sudden presence appears in other legislative bodies, but, in the ordinary course of nature, they are comparatively exempt, as being constituted for limited service; but here we know the grim messenger must come to sever close relations and to constantly remind us of our mortality. Above our heads the storied sword of Damocles is ever suspended. Since I have been connected with the board three Chancellors, a Vice-Chancellor and seven regents have passed away, but never has the

sharp contrast between the quickened energies of life and the marble repose of death been more vividly enforced than in the loss of our late presiding officer. There were in him such a vivid and pervasive personality, such a warm greeting, such a cheery presence, such an intimate acquaintance with and faithful discharge of his executive functions that we most keenly miss his commanding form, his sound counsel and his cordial friendship. As we were in business session, to-day, discussing the questions with which he was so familiar, and upon whose settlement he could have thrown so much light, the oppression of his absence was with me, at least, controlling. It possessed my thoughts, and without him it seemed as if the meeting was unreal and unsubstantial, like the fabric of a dream. It seemed as if he must be in his accustomed place, and without him that our deliberations lacked authority and validity. At the previous meeting he had presided, and never was he more fruitful in suggestion, more considerate in manner or more exuberant in spirit; and, as we separated, it was with the conviction that his would be an enduring presence with us, and that, although his locks were whitened by his three score and ten, it would be long before the seasons would stiffen his sinews or dampen the glow of his youthful ardor; that they would reserve his dissolution to the distant future, and would approach him only with the benediction of the larger wisdom. Alas! this was not to be. He was to fall, full of years and honors, and yet untimely, if age is to be measured by the capacity for achievement, as well as by that which it has accomplished.

I have reserved for the minute, the formal record of the career of the dead Chancellor, with especial reference to his work in the board, but I have failed in my purpose if I have not, in these remarks, indicated something of the place he held in the hearts of his associates, and I should utterly fail if I did not testify to the sense of personal obligation I entertain for many acts of kindness toward myself. For one, he was at once colleague and guide, and I note that he was more than kind to the foreign members of the board, who will always tenderly cherish their association with him and ennoble his memory. In the illustrious roll of the Chancellors of the University there may have been men with an ampler equipment as statesmen, with more generous gifts of scholarship, but there has been none who brought to his exalted trust a truer

appreciation of its dignity, a more singular consecration to its duties or more of zeal and fidelity in their fulfillment than did Henry R. Pierson; and certainly none was more beloved by his associates, in the dual relation here established of official organization and personal comradeship.

Mr Chancellor, I will now read the minute:

Henry R. Pierson, for eighteen years a regent, three years Vice-Chancellor, and nine years Chancellor of the University of the State of New York, died at his home, in the city of Albany, January 1, 1890.

He was born in Charleston, Montgomery county, June 13, 1819. Straitened circumstances delayed, but could not defeat, his ardently-cherished and long-matured plan for securing a liberal education, and, with the means obtained by teaching, he pursued the course at Union college, entering that institution in 1843, and graduating therefrom in 1846 with high honors, in a class, many of the members of which have distinguished themselves in various activities. He studied law with Little and Campbell of Cherry Valley, and with the Hon. Gilbert M. Spier of New York, and was admitted to the bar in 1848. Settling in Brooklyn, he became a man of affairs as well as prominent in his profession, and political honors were soon bestowed upon him. While a resident of Brooklyn, from 1849 until 1869, he was president of the city railroad, a member of the board of education, an alderman, and president of the common council and a state senator. In 1869, he removed to Chicago as the financial agent of the Chicago and Northwestern Railroad Company, of which he subsequently became vice-president. In 1871, he came to Albany and was made resident director of the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company. After a few years service in this capacity he relinquished it and established a private banking-house in Albany, in the management of which and of various fiduciary trusts, both of a public and private nature, he was occupied until his death.

In 1873, he was a member of assembly from Albany county; in 1870 he was elected a trustee of Union college, of the Albany Medical college and of the Dudley observatory; in 1872, he was chosen a regent of the University, thus vacating his other educational trusteeship. In 1878, he was made Vice-Chancellor, and in 1881, upon the death of Chancellor Benedict, Chancellor. He received the degree of doctor of laws from his alma mater in 1874.

Tributes to his legal attainments, his business ability and his Christian character, have been made elsewhere. His associates in this board desire to testify their appreciation of the zeal and fidelity with which he discharged the important functions of Chancellor. To these he brought a genuine sympathy with the cause of higher education, stimulated by his memories of his own early struggles in that behalf. He gave much attention to the details of his position, being in almost daily attendance at the home office, and making more frequent visits to the institutions under the supervision of the board than was the habit of some of his predecessors. His presence was always a welcome one at literary festivals. Upon educational legislation he exercised a marked influence, securing, by his suave and gracious manner, needed and even liberal appropriations for the use of the University. He believed in business methods in the conduct of the board, and is to be credited largely with the excellent system that there obtains, and with the passage of the law of 1889, which endows the board with wider powers and graver responsibilities than it had previously possessed. In the schemes for enlarging and popularizing the state library and the museum he was cordially enlisted, and did much to maintain the vitality and to broaden the scope of the annual Convocation. He commended and endeared himself to the educators of the state by his manly bearing, his genial hospitality and his unaffected interest in their work. Although not a great orator he always had a fitting word for fitting occasion, and his earnestness informed his speech; the essentials of eloquence. In all ways, he did good and permanent service for the cause of higher education, and his name will be enduring with those who recognized the sincerity of his consecration and the value of his labors.

Address of Regent Hamilton Harris

Mr Chancellor: Mr Pierson's great services to the state and his worth as a man impel me to place some tribute to his memory.

The animation and buoyancy of spirits exhibited by him at the last meeting of the board of regents — only a month ago — render it difficult to realize that his labors are forever ended. Although the frosts which never melt had settled upon his locks, he was so full of vital force, and the springs of life seemed so fresh, that we had never come to associate with him the infirmities of age. His

intellectual strength, his impulsive nature and his restless energy were as distinguished at the close, as they had been before he experienced the vicissitudes and endured the trials of life.

I can do no otherwise than speak lovingly of him, for our acquaintance, which began when he came to reside in Albany in 1871, had ripened into a warm friendship. He had already achieved success in life and evinced in many high positions eminent fitness for public service. His great executive ability had been illustrated by the successful manner in which he had managed large corporate interests intrusted to his care and charge. His cultivated and vigorous mind, his gracious bearing and enthusiastic spirit brought him, upon making this capital city his home, prominently into its social and intellectual life. He became intimately connected with every movement tending to its growth and prosperity. The breadth of his views and the wisdom of his counsel forwarded every enterprise calculated to benefit the community. During the eighteen years of his residence here, he had borne himself so pleasantly in its society and impressed his personality so strongly upon its interests, that when he came to die he was one of the foremost of its citizens.

Mr Pierson's energies and influence also extended throughout the state. He found his most congenial employment in promoting the cause of education, and when he was elected a regent of the University he devoted the best activities of his mind to its work. Upon becoming Chancellor, he infused by his indomitable energy greater power for educational and scholarly usefulness into all the departments of the University. He was prominent at convocations of teachers and at college commencements, with his words of cheer and advice. The enlightened views, the high public spirit and the great executive capacity which he displayed during the eight years that he presided over this great state University, gave fresh life, impetus and vigor to the educational interests of the state and will forever ally his name to its institutions of learning.

The personal traits of Mr Pierson were marked. He had a dignified presence, an attractive face, a joyous temperament, with a cheery manner and a frank carriage. He was a delightful companion, and his hearty and genial address made him a welcome guest in society and an agreeable associate in business circles. He was a ready and fluent speaker, enlivening his speech with

humor and anecdote, which frequently won, when logic failed. Selfishness and meanness were unknown to his generous nature. Manliness characterized his demeanor. I saw him a few hours before the surgeon's knife was the third time to probe for the deadly cancer. There was no trepidation. Resentment and enmity were alien to his character. Once upon my expression of surprise when some of his professed friends had unjustly assailed him in business, his only answer was the repetition of the Bible verse—"It was not an enemy that reproached me; then I could have borne it; but it was a man, mine equal, mine acquaintance." It was in sorrow, not in anger that he spoke.

In all the mutations of fortune he kept an even course, and retained to the end the same genial nature, with which he started in his career of manhood. He met death, as he had wrought in life, with a manly, Christian fortitude.

Address of Regent St Clair McKelway

Mr Chancellor and Brother Regents: Following the official announcement of the death of Henry R. Pierson and the expressions already rendered touching that event and him, I have been requested to say a few words. They should be few because the mind of the man who was lately with us was direct, simple and straight-lined. Many things in him went to the making of a prodigious personality. In feeling the personality you forgot the things. The man net was the forcible fact. Death, in his case, was as complete and prompt as always had been the virile organization which it laid low. The time of his departure surprised me; the manner of it did not. I thought he would go out like an extinguished light, as he did, and not gradually pass away. I did not think that it would be this year or for several years to come. His quick effacement is a "Be ye also ready" to all of us. However or whenever or wherever the summons may come, may we be as fearless in facing it as he, and along the varied lines of character and effort may our career be as vivid, as vital and as intelligible as his was. I knew Mr Pierson a quarter of a century. The last four years of his residence in Brooklyn were the first four of mine in that city. Nearly a decade following his departure from Brooklyn, I began a seven years' sojourn with him in Albany. Two periods of our lives thus were passed in mutual observation and each measured the other by the environment of

two communities. The first public trust in which I knew him was an educational one. He was a member of the school board of the city of churches. Sitting with him for seven years in the highest educational board of the state, the end of my impressions, like the beginning of them, touched him in his character as an educational official. It is in that character that he will be longest and best remembered, and in that fact there is a lesson. He was an assemblyman and he was a state senator. In those relations he discharged a mixed party and public trust. He was a master of corporations employing vast numbers of people and then he established a business of his own. In both careers he dealt with competitors, was a student of markets and alternately a winner and a loser in the battle of wits and resources. A hundred years from now every point at which he touched life in his time will probably be unrecorded, excepting the points in which he touched it as a trustee of the educational powers reposed in him by the elected representatives of the people. His labor here brought him not bread or money or lands or houses. It was unremunerated in the sense in which men use that term, but he, being dead, that labor is found to have been the one that yielded fame, love and respect as its interest and the one which, under the impetus given to it by him, will go on forever for the glory of the commonwealth and the good of humanity. He did not originate that work. He received it as a legacy from the hands that for a hundred years had carried it on in this board. To the hands that will here carry it on for more than a hundred years to come he transmitted it. The workers die. The work goes on. Much as the workers may honor the work, signally more the work honors them. It was Mr Pierson's privilege to do this work in all its stages. He was a member of this board in the rank and file. He was chairman of some of its most responsible committees. He was its Vice-Chancellor. He died its Chancellor, and that is the distinction and the duty in which he would have chosen to die. We all know how fond he was of what he had to do. We all know how earnestly he went at doing it. Did we ever disagree with him or he with us? Yes and no. Yes, in the initiative; no, in the eventuality. He was a man who talked his way into what was true, whole and wise. His propositions at birth, like those of others of the board, would be sweeping, radical, iconoclastic. The form of their first statement would be as

dogmatic as if they were long matured conclusions. He would encounter a declaration of opposite views as absolutely put as his own. Comparison, discussion, examination would ensue and out of the attrition of debate the stately and simple column of right and fact would rise. There was no man more candid in combat or in concession here than he was. If he was not always considerate of the susceptibilities of others in this foray of views, he did not ask them to be considerate of his own. Impulsively and temporarily unjust he could be. Intentionally and permanently unjust he knew not how to be. Happily he was among those who understood him and whom he understood. The age of his body was three score and ten. The youthfulness of his mind was perennial. He was never younger in heart or more vigorous in thought than at the meeting in December, when his outlook on life seemed so real and hopeful. For one, I am glad that the highest honor of this board, under its reorganized and augumented powers, came to him in the blossom of age whose decrepitude he never was to see. Let us, from his enthusiasm, from his legitimate pride in his position and from his desire worthily to magnify it, take courage and example. Let us, like him, go we soon or late, have no enemies and no favorites among our number, but an equal friend in every one. It was the felicity of this strong Chancellor's life to watch the misconceptions concerning this board pass away and to launch it down its second century on its new career of larger and more intimate relations with the learning and the living of all the people. To die on the heights of achievement is from the topmost round of life to step into the skies. Of such men the memory is strength. To such men, I profoundly believe, death works only a change of venue for their disembodied and quenchless vigor, recalling it from the earth to release it to the universe.

Address of Regent Martin I. Townsend

In the death of our beloved Chancellor, Hon. Henry R. Pierson, the cause of education in this state has lost one of its most devoted and efficient friends. Few have known how tireless and persevering have been his labors in this philanthropic work.

He brought to the discharge of his official duties a mental and physical energy rarely equaled. Nature had cast him in her strongest mold. His acquisition of the admirable education

which he possessed was due, in a great degree, to his indomitable will and his own relentless exertions. In the great variety of employments, as lawyer, as senator, as member of assembly, as railroad director, and in many other positions in which he had been placed by a confiding public, he had not only discharged his duties in a manner which secured him the confidence of all who knew him, but had broadened his own original admirable faculties, and rendered himself better fitted to assume duties which could only be successfully discharged by one whose intellectual powers had become fitted to grasp and wield the forces at the service of those who walk abreast with the 19th century. It was with powers so ripened and broadened that Chancellor Pierson entered upon the duties of his exalted position. He brought to his work a warm, generous, and philanthropic heart aglow with love for the whole race of man.

His toil brought no pecuniary requital, and yet for the long years of his chancellorship, his zeal never for a moment lost its fervor, and his labors never slackened. We who have been associated with him know better than others can know, how thoroughly he has performed the work set for him to do. No interest throughout our empire state which required our attention has been neglected.

His supervision over our educational institutions and enterprises, has been like the care of a father for the interests of his beloved household. Now that providence has removed him from this sphere of activity, where the work of an active, an honorable, and a useful life has been supplemented by so many years of philanthropic labor, we are prepared to utter from the depths of our affection, "Well done, good and faithful."

The recollection of our pleasant association with him in his great, enthusiastic, and devoted labors in behalf of the coming generations of our people, will ever remain with us, amongst our dearest and most cherished recollections.

Address of Regent William L. Bostwick

The death of the late Chancellor Pierson removes from among us a man sincerely devoted to the cause of education, active in the business affairs of life, and earnest in effort to benefit his fellow men. His face carried an expression that always cheered, and his hearty greetings and kind words encouraged and com-

forted all with whom he came in contact along the pathway of life. His career has been a marked one. His life and record illustrate what may be accomplished by an earnest and high-minded citizen.

I have heard him relate his experiences as a boy, just graduated from college, starting out on the voyage of life. How he was buffeted and tossed about in a great city, friendless and almost penniless, in search of a place to pursue the profession of law. Often he was almost disposed to abandon his purpose, but, with stout heart and firm resolve, he kept to his course, which eventually landed him in a partnership with the eminent lawyer who had first received him as a clerk.

Mr Pierson filled many offices of public and private trust, and, in all, he discharged the duties with fidelity and integrity. As regent and Chancellor of the University, he devoted many years to the important detail work of the board. His zeal in the cause of higher education was manifest, not only in the board, but at the Convocations and in his visitations of colleges and academies. In all educational gatherings he was a welcome guest and many a young man and woman has received fresh inspiration from his helpful and encouraging words.

His heart was in his work; his wise counsels and broad views commanded respect, and gave him an influence potent and far-reaching throughout the educational interests of the state and nation. He was a genial and generous friend. To those who knew him intimately his death is a personal loss. His life was well rounded out and replete with good will toward men. He rests from his labors, but the grand works he wrought will live after him and bear fruit for coming generations.

EBENEZER DODGE, D. D., LL. D.

President of Madison University

BY PROF. W. H. MAYNARD, D. D., COLGATE UNIVERSITY

President Dodge was born in Salem, Mass., on the 22nd of April, 1819. He graduated from Brown University in 1840. In 1853 he was elected to the professorship of Biblical literature and interpretation in Hamilton Theological Seminary, and to that of the Evidences of revealed religion in Madison University. In 1861 he was transferred from the chair of Biblical criticism to that of Christian theology. In 1868 he was elected president of

Madison University, retaining his chairs of instruction in both seminary and college.

Dr Dodge was a man of broad, varied and thorough learning. He had mastered the philosophical systems of the great thinkers, both ancient and modern. While not a scientist, he possessed a full and intelligent acquaintance with all the important results of modern scientific investigation. There was but little of the best ancient and modern literature which he had not read. But while possessing vast learning, he was not a mere encyclopedia. Patchwork culture was his abomination. He did his own thinking. Neither self-conceited isolation nor servile subordination was his characteristic. Each human soul, if true to its destiny, expresses some creative thought of God. To be false to that creative thought, is to be false to God. Like the tree, which takes up through its roots the enriching nutriment which man applies; and yet bears fruit after its own kind, Dr Dodge was nourished by communion with the thinkers of all ages, not even omitting the medieval scholastics; and yet bore the fruit, corresponding with the individuality which the creative thought intended to express through him. Fearlessly yet reverently, he walked upon the loftiest range of thought, calling no one master but Christ.

His natural tendency to a recluse life, combined with a life-long disease, led him to shun publicity; but when he did make his appearance, he was readily recognized as an intellectual master. To take but one from numerous similar remarks that have come to me; having delivered an address at the Capitol at Washington — an address, in which, owing to illness, he was not quite up to his level — one of our most eminent statesmen, Vice-President Wilson, exclaimed at its close, "Who is that man? He is the greatest thinker I ever listened to."

But to dwell on his intellectual greatness would be superfluous for those who knew him. The better one knew him, the greater the admiration for his intellectual and moral character. An intimate acquaintance often turns the heroes of our imagination into most commonplace characters. Take that star, which seems to shine like a pure altar-candle before the throne of God, analyze it with a spectroscope — it is a chaotic mass with contrariant elements, warring against each other. It is no longer the emblem of pure serenity; but Dr Dodge grew greater and purer upon our nearest approach.

Were I called upon to mention the one trait which produced the deepest impression upon me, I should unhesitatingly name, disinterestedness. More nearly that any man I have known, he was an example of absolute disinterestedness.

It was this disinterestedness, which gave him his great wisdom. His administration was untainted with selfishness. He did not share the heathen notion, that prayer is a battery with which to bend the will of the gods to our own inclination. A clergyman once said to Abraham Lincoln "I pray that the Lord may be on our side." "Rather pray" answered Mr Lincoln "that we may be on side of the Lord." Dr Dodge had a most earnest desire to be on the side of the Lord, to discover the eternal verities, to follow the movements of Providence. He did not first form his plan, and then try to get God's endorsement upon it. He could never have approached the oracles of God's word or the oracles of God's providence, in the manner that the heathen Philomelus approached the Delphic oracle. Philomelus wished its approbation for a selfish project. The priestess was obstinate and refused to give the desired response. At last, the self-willed man placed the priestess by force upon the tripod, when she exclaimed in frightened tone "you can do whatever you please"; whereupon Philomelus commanded the sentence to be proclaimed to the people, as the divine sanction to his project. Through a subtle self-deception, a selfish man gives to the oracles and providences of God, an interpretation that suits his self-seeking desire. But such a man can never possess the highest administrative wisdom. As well might the captain of a ship, put a bar of steel over his heart, every time he consulted the magnetic needle, and expect to steer his vessel in the right direction amid shoals and rocks. Disinterestedness rather than wordly tact, made Dr Dodge a wise president, and saved our university from striking the rocks, that have lain all along the years.

This disinterestedness was the source of that composure, which was his prominent characteristic. He identified himself with an institution to which he believed God had assigned a blessed mission. He had an unshaken trust that its interests were under the care of divine providence. He was but an instrument of God, a finite human workman, and could fall back upon the infinite power. When in the earlier and critical periods, the prophets of evil were saying "You'll have nothing but a wreck there", he was unmoved.

He believed that with regard to every true servant of God, a "providence, silent and unseen, works with him while he works and for him while he sleeps; corrects what he does imperfectly, and completes what he leaves unfinished; and so gives to feeble beginnings a strange success, and on counsels of faith and love, brings out at last a stamp of wisdom" beyond that of the individual actor. His faith in this divine working imparted to him composure in adversity and prosperity. We have sometimes looked upon that composure, as an inheritance from nature. Not so: his nature was of the tempestuous order: his composure, the offspring of his faith in God and of his sincere intent. I used sometimes to tell him "you are too slow." Nine times in 10, the criticism was wrong. There is an over-anxious haste that does not trust God's movement in events and the power of the eternal love. Some of us are like the child, that puts the seed in the ground and then hurries to dig it out, to see whether it has germinated; and when the bud has appeared, he tries to pick it open and to hasten forward the blossom; not recognizing that his impatience means destruction. Few are contented to plant the seed of a project, and wait upon the sunshine and dews of God's providence. Dr Dodge had that patience. He could commit his project to that God with whom he wanted to be one in purpose and await the issue with composure. Were it proper, I could give marked instances where this composure, maintained against the opposing advice of eminent men, prevented most ruinous complications.

His disinterestedness made him patient to opposition and kindly in his judgment of others. Every public man is exposed to an ungenerous misinterpretation of his highest and best motive. President Dodge was not subjected to many criticisms of that kind. The general confidence in his purity frowned down calmuniators; but when he suspected and even knew positively, that ungenerous inuendoes were whispersd, he harbored no feeling of retaliation. It was not the indifference of a heathen magnanimity, where a man conscious that he possesses great qualities, that he towers above his critics, exclaims, "What do I care for those little critics? Why should I be annoyed by these inferiors?" It was not the pride of a defiant and strong will, conscious that he could bring things to pass; his composure, was like that of the sensitive Christ, who

from beneath the crown of thorns, looked his benediction upon his enemies.

It was this disinterestedness which induced him to make Madison, now Colgate University, the seat of his life's labor; and it was the same disinterestedness which retained him in the presidency for the three or four years preceding his death.

In the earlier portion of his career at Madison University, he was sought by other institutions. The prospects presented were more flattering to human ambition. He had to struggle with that ambition, for he had not reached the spiritual height upon which he stood in later years.

Two things kept him at Madison. One was his reluctance to leave a struggling institution; the other was the influence of Dr Wayland. Twice has Brown University been a benediction to this place. The first time was when Daniel Hascall was engaged in the erection of a college edifice. He had used up all the funds. Not a cent remained in the treasury. The building was incomplete; not even enclosed. Hascall wrestled the whole night in prayer. That same night Nicholas Brown of Providence was unable to sleep. The next evening at the close of the weekly prayer meeting, he said to his pastor, Dr Gano, "I could not sleep last night, I was strongly impressed that there was trouble at Hamilton. Won't you go and see? If there is pecuniary need, I will help them through." Gano came and the building was completed. The second time was, when President Wayland urged upon Dr Dodge the Christian principle of self-sacrifice, and said, "Remain in Hamilton. Build up an intellectual, spiritual temple from the material that God's providence places at your disposal."

It was this disinterestedness also, which kept him at his presidential post when he longed to retire. We said to him, "You must not take your hand off the helm for two or three years." He considered the matter in its various relations and finally said, 'Probably you are right. I will retain the position." He remained with the semi-consciousness that the draft upon him might shorten his days. He was living in a half-anticipation of a speedy departure. I did not share the feeling. I was anticipating that he would retire from the presidency and remain as an instructor. I had pictured for him, some years of the old-fashioned Indian summer, wherein there might be just a little touch of

haziness on the faculties, but where the boughs would be laden with glorious intellectual and spiritual fruit. I thought these years might be richer in results than the previous life. But it was not to be. That God whom his childlike faith trusted, even as when he once said, "I must put an interrogation point there and wait the answer on the other side", knew what was best for him and us.

This belief in his genuine disinterestedness gave him great power over students. He might sometimes be criticised as lacking on the formal side of discipline. He knew that military discipline was the easiest kind of discipline; it is harder to inspire men with those high motives, which render formal rules unnecessary. That was his purpose. To effect that, he would consume days, where through the other method, he could have settled a matter in an hour. When he found a young man corrupt, or in danger of entering upon the paths of wickedness, he went into that Gethsemane, where the soul is bowed beneath the weight of vicarious suffering. A good many things did not annoy or discourage him that would annoy and discourage others. The gardener is never discouraged because the fruit on the trees in the spingtime is green, acerb, ill-shaped. His imagination realizes the ripe, autumnal fruit. More than one, as he recalls his boyish effervescence, will render a tribute like that which Henry Shaw — Josh Billings — paid to President North. "I went to college full of the devil. There was a man in the faculty who had studied Socrates to some purpose. He didn't go to work to kill the boy and leave the devil. His plan was just the opposite, — to kill off the devil and leave the boy." This is not to be interpreted as if President Dodge held the reins with nerveless hands. Where occasion required — and the occasion came seldom — he put the law in the foreground and every student knew it would be executed to the last iota.

I have emphasized his disinterestedness. Disinterestedness was not a birth inheritance. In his young manhood he had a strong will, a tempestuous nature, great ambition. He was converted. That did not make him perfect. An aunt said to him "you are too ambitious to make a good minister." He recognized the truth in her admonition. He determined to make Christian self-abnegation his goal. He did not reach it at one bound. He never realized it to his own satisfaction, but we know that for

some years he has walked among us, an eminent example of Christian disinterestedness.

I have dwelt at length upon his disinterestedness because it was this trait in his character which produced the strongest impression upon me.

As a theological teacher he belonged to the nineteenth century. I remember how he once characterized a certain theological treatise as "written in the fifteenth and published in the nineteenth century." He was no innovator, on the hunt for novelties, but to the last moment he was open to incoming light. His theology was open to revision. He grew in grace and knowledge to the last. He was not that "curious mental phenomenon, who appears to get early — perhaps to be born with — a kind of dry schedule or catalogue of the universe; a ledger in his head and a title to which he can refer any transaction; nothing puzzling him, nothing coming amiss to him, but not in the least wiser for anything." He used to say, "any human system fences out more than it fences in." He emphasized the great fundamental truths, but on subordinate matters exercised great freedom. This habit of thought made a preëminently wise teacher for theological students in this age. On the one hand there is danger of neglecting fundamental truths, of saying, Lo here and Lo there; on the other hand there is danger of mistaking the gossamer webs, spun from man's philosophy, as essential portions of the divine system. He regarded this as a transitional epoch. Overconservatism as well as hasty radicalism were each unsuited to the theological chair. The freedom of discussion permitted in the class-room resulted in this — that his students went out well grounded and remained well grounded in the central redemption truths. He demanded and exercised that tolerance which originates in love to God and man, as well as in a sense of our own limitations. He exercised patience towards men whom others would cast out as heretics. He had a feeling of motherhood towards them. Have you ever watched a youth, when he is approaching the period of an independent, self-asserting personality? What a vast number of unregulated crude notions, some that will ripen into a wisdom superior to that of his ancestors — others, most arrant nonsense; but amid it all, if he has a true heart, he is going toward that ideal, for which divine Providence has destined him. He ought not to be the exact fac-simile of his

father. But at such a crisis, given an impatient, bigoted father, the chances are that he exclaims, "Pack up your trunk and begone"; while the mother, with ineffable tenderness, throws about the silken cords of love and retains him under the old roof-tree. That was the attitude he wished the church to assume. That was his own attitude. Through that attitude of his, more than one man to-day is proclaiming with emphasis the great saving truths, who otherwise had been a theological tramp.

But great as he was as a theologian he sometimes spoke contemptuously of mere theology, viewed from the scholastic standpoint. I have known men pained at these expressions. But their pain and suspicion will be changed to genuine admiration when they once receive the interpretation of his meaning. An English author gives his idea better than I can. "There is no doubt," he says, "that the game of chess may properly be called an intellectual study; but why does it not, and cannot make any man wise? Because, in the first place, the calculations do but respect the movements of little pieces of wood or ivory, and not those of our own minds and hearts; and, again, they are calculations which have nothing to do whatever with our being better men or worse, with our pleasing God or displeasing him. And what is true of this game may be, and is often, true of the study of the very Scripture itself; and that not only of the incidental points of Scripture, its antiquities, chronology and history, but of its very most divine truths, of man's justification and of God's nature. Here indeed we are considering about things where wisdom, so to speak, sits enshrined. We are very near her, we see the place where she abides; but her very self we obtain not. And why? — but because in the most solemn study, no less than in the lightest, we may be forgetting our great business, to be reconciled to God and to do his will". Dr Dodge did not worship theological propositions for their own sake. He cared for them only as they could be related to the upbuilding of Christian character and the salvation of men. All his mere intellectual speculations he felt might turn out on the day after his death mere childish babble: all that was born of Christ's heart, of love, would abide forever. "God is love," was his central theological thought, and all thinking which divine love worked into the soul would remain through the eternities.

The universal feeling of the graduates of the university was voiced in the following sentence uttered by Dr Judson at his funeral:

"We who have come from different parts of the earth to be here to-day, we who are laboring, some of us in loneliness and discouragement, how often has the thought come that Dr Dodge was there in the house on the hill; the thought that he was there and we could go to him in the hour of distress — what nerve, what force, what new courage has it brought to us. And now we feel that a bulwark has been taken away."

MARTIN BREWER ANDERSON, LL. D., L. H. D.

Ex-President of University of Rochester

BY PRES. JAMES M. TAYLOR, VASSAR COLLEGE

The death of ex-President Anderson, of the University of Rochester, has removed from us one of the most distinguished educators of the state, and one of the best known of its servants. It is given to few to make so deep an impress on men as he made during the 36 years of his college presidency, not only in his own institution, but in conventions, and through the press, and as a member of the commissions in which he served the government of the state. The secret of his powers was in his own remarkable personality.

He was born in Brunswick, Maine, Feb. 15, 1815, of Scotch-Irish ancestry. He had a good common school education in his earlier years, but he did his part also toward the support of the household, and assisted in providing for his further education. He was at one time, thus, a laborer in a shipyard. He was able to enter Waterville College, now Colby University, in 1836, and was graduated in 1840. He entered the Newton Theological Seminary, having in view the Christian ministry,— but responded to a call frcm his Alma Mater after a single year, and became tutor at Waterville in Latin, Greek, and mathematics. During a long winter vacation he supplied the pulpit of the E street church in Washington, and attracted much attention as a young preacher of unusual power of thought, and of fearless and vigorous expression. In 1843 he was made professor of rhetoric, but lectured also on history, ethnology, and the English language. He resigned in 1850, and became the proprietor and editor of the

New York Recorder, predecessor of the Examiner. His experience as a journalist lasted but three years, when he was called to the presidency of the young University of Rochester. He resigned his trust in 1888, on account of his growing physical infirmities, but continued in charge of the college till the winter of 1889. He died at Lake Helen, Florida, Feb. 26, 1890.

The mere outline facts of such a biography give no hint of the power of the life, of the remarkable breadth of its scholarship, of the force and influence and art which made him one of the great teachers of the generation, of the administrative skill which made him one of the foremost college presidents of his time, of the breadth of his views of life and duty, which led him to consecrate his already burdened powers to the service of the commonwealth. His massive form, marking him as a leader among men, his great physical and mental vigor, and his large moral and spiritual endowments, fitted him to do a variety of work, and to render an amount of service, that can be expected only of the few.

The scholarship of Dr Anderson was marked by its thoroughness and its range. He was interested in everything which was of interest to mankind. From an agricultural implement to an ethnological problem, from the last mathematical theory to the most recent etching, from the puzzling questions which threatened the faith of one of his students, to the broad considerations which underlie federal government and communal prosperity,— nothing was alien to him. He was eager for all knowledge. Every book that had anything to say was welcomed by him. Every man who had an idea to express or a fact to declare was for the moment his peer. He would sit by the farmer, on a railway journey, and glean all he knew from him. He would draw out the mining expert. He would learn from the commercial traveller. "Pump him dry", was one of his vigorous, homely, counsels to men,— and one drawn from his own continual practice.

The same voracious desire for knowledge made him as eager in the cultivation of acquaintance with books of every kind.

But great acquisition is far from synonymous with great scholarship. Dr Anderson's mind was not merely accumulative; it was assimilative. He made his own all that came to him; he coordinated his facts; he put upon them the stamp of his own remarkable power of synthesis and generalization. His was an incisive, analytic mind as he grasped for knowledge. He saw clearly what

he wished amid the myriads of facts: he selected rapidly and wisely, and the rest could wait till he needed them. He always knew where to look for what had once interested him. To use his own vigorous expression, he "tore the heart" out of the book he read. He knew its secret and that was enough.

Nor was he merely a general scholar. His method was to put the powers of his mind on one subject of investigation until he had mastered its principles, and when he had once done that every new book supplied him with fresh information regarding this chosen line. He had made great attainments in ethnology, he was a broad and profound student of history, he was at home in political science and economics, he was a careful student of philosophy. Theology was a diligently cultivated field, and he read critically and extensively in the history of art. The historical type of mind, rather than the logical or philosophical, was his. He was always philosophical, indeed,—but his tastes inclined him to approach, investigate, and treat, every subject in its history.

As a teacher Dr Anderson was one of the small vanguard of the noble army. He was great as a *scholar*, and men of every department of learning recognized his scholarly worth. He was a strong and impressive *preacher*. In his own chapel, on the day of prayer for colleges, he preached of purity and truth and Christian manliness and consecration, with the fire of an ancient prophet and with the irresistible fervor of a Christian apostle. In no other pulpit could he preach as there. But he was at his highest in the classroom. Not even in his famous "chapel talks", when he discussed informally, in brief addresses, questions of the hour, politics, moral issues, some great life just ended, Nott, Wayland,—was he as truly great as in the classroom and in presence of his little senior class.

He aimed not only to impart knowledge; he strove to teach men to think and investigate for themselves; he aimed at the incorporation of truth in character. Not the barren scholar, but the scholar whose life should tell on the world's life for humanity and God, was his ideal. Arnold of Rugby was a type to which he often referred. It has been said, probably with great exaggeration, that he read Stanley's Arnold every year. At least he illustrated all that was best in that strong teacher of England.

It was not as a lecturer that he showed his power in the class-room. He drew out the thoughts of his pupils, encouraged questioning by them, led them into discussion, and not seldom the hour closed with professor and pupils at white heat. Young men went out from his room with all that was best in them incited toward a better; their highest ambitions were awakened, and thoughts and dreams became determinations and realities.

His knowledge was one source of inspiration; his teaching power accounted for much of his influence; his massive personality and the vigor of his address, as if he would not allow one to escape the toils of his logic, explained not a little; but the great source of his power, a power that has been very marked among his graduates, was his character, — the chief thing in the teacher, after all has been said. It commanded respect, it won affection, it awakened loyalty to ideals, it taught courage against meanness and vice and all hypocrisy, it broadened the vision of the young to thoughts of duty to the community, it incited to faith in truth and God and immortality. More than he taught was the man, and his deep, strong influence on men rested back in the spirit of the teacher and in his own communion with "the things unseen."

Dr Anderson was not a prolific writer. It was not as much the fashion, in his younger days, as it is now, for every young student to rush into print with the first results of his "independent" investigation. But he wrote articles on various topics, philosophical, economical, historical, missionary, ecclesiastical. Like many other of our greatest teachers he found his chief mission in the classroom. Another side of the character of this many-sided man deserves special recognition here. He acknowledged to the full his obligation to the public, and freely gave of his strength to meet its demands. In the stirring days of civil war Dr Anderson was felt to be a leader in his city. In the Arcade, or City Hall, or in some great tent, he rallied men as the news of battle came, and poured out of a full heart words of courage and steadfastness and hope. Men volunteered by scores under the influence of his exhortations. The "scholar in politics" was never more splendidly illustrated.

For years Dr Anderson brought the wisdom of his large experience and of his special study of methods of charity to the counsels of the State Board of Charities. Later he was a member of the Niagara Commission.

He brought the same devotion to the work of the church. He was president, at different times, of both the great missionary

organizations of the denomination to which he belonged. But he was as docile a follower as he was potent as a leader. He loyally attended and sustained the worship of his church, and was always ready to give to his pastor the support of his strong hand.

Dr Anderson's great life-work was the building up of the University of Rochester. This is not the place for details concerning a work whose history is already a part of your records. Suffice it to say that from almost nothing Dr Anderson led up his college to a proud position of power and usefulness. He had no large wealth behind him. He raised much of the money needed, bore the burden of what seemed sometimes a failing cause, and with splendid devotion and untiring courage struggled on. He always said he was "laying foundations," and he laid them enduringly and broadly. It was enough for him if others "*builded* thereon."

He was omnipresent in the work of the college. He visited other classrooms, urged on his faculty by his own inspired spirit, superintended buildings, bought the books, — and stood ready to fill any place temporarily left vacant. It might seem a waste of energies, however needful it seemed to him. Such in part it may have been. Perhaps he might have deputed more to others. By our modern fashion the president cannot be the university, and it is better so. But there are men like Mark Hopkins and Martin B. Anderson who *are* universities, and who work only according to their kind.

Dr Anderson's executive ability and energy were amply recognized. He was called to the presidency of Brown University, and it is said to that of Michigan also, and his name was most prominently mentioned for that of Harvard when Dr Hill resigned. But he felt that his life was given to Rochester, — and to "his boys" as he fondly called them. And there his work was done.

His wife died on a Saturday; on the following Wednesday he followed her to rest. They were childless, — but a host of sons call their memory blessed. They were homeless, they whose home had welcomed with beautiful and bounteous hospitality a generation of classes of students, — but the university for which they gave themselves and their substance became the home of their bodies, — and student-guards watched them tenderly till they were laid to rest. The childless old man went down to his grave rich in the loyalty and love of hundreds who revered him as a father, and whose hearts are his earthly home.

EDWARD P. WATERBURY

President of New York State Normal College

BY DAVID MURRAY, LL. D., EX-SECRETARY UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK

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It is a gratification to me to speak a few words at this memorial service in regard to my life-long friend, President Waterbury.

My knowledge of him goes back to our school days and stretches on to a few months ago, when the news of his death reached me in the mountains of Pennsylvania. It was not a mere casual and temporary acquaintance which was soon forgotten, but circumstances seemed to bring us and keep us in intimate relations.

At the Fergusonville Academy where I finished my preparation for college in 1849, Mr Waterbury having graduated at this Normal School in the spring of that year, was already engaged as a teacher. Afterward when I became principal of the Albany Academy in 1857, Mr Waterbury was principal of a public school in the city of Hudson. At my suggestion and solicitation he came to the Academy as professor of the English language and literature. Many men now engaged in the active duties of life in this city and elsewhere made the acquaintance of his genial and energetic personality during his incumbency of that position.

To those who thus knew him, I need not speak of the earnestness and success with which he performed his duties. Their training is assured evidence of the fidelity with which he continued to exercise the office of teacher. Again and again have I heard testimony from the old boys of that period as to the ability and fidelity with which he did his duty to those under his charge.

When I left the Academy Mr Waterbury was still filling his place of professor. He continued in this position till 1868, when he resigned it to enter upon the business of life insurance. His career in this business was successful beyond precedent. He was known far and wide not only for his success in securing the insurance of many prominent men, but for his extensive and scholarly knowledge of the science. A little volume which he prepared for the Massachusetts Mutual Life Insurance Company, relating to the methods and purposes of life insurance, had wide usefulness, and gave him a well-deserved reputation among those engaged in the same business.

When I went to Japan in the service of the Japanese government, Mr Waterbury was engaged here in business. During all the time I remained there, nearly six years, I think scarcely a mail ever arrived — and they came about once in three weeks — without its bringing a letter from Mr Waterbury. Constantly and intelligently he kept me informed upon all the personal, political and educational events which were occurring. I owed it to him more than to any other man or source that I did not become ignorant or unheedful of what was occurring at home.

One of the things in which I became greatly interested while in Japan was an indemnity which was exacted from the Japanese government for alleged damages committed by them upon the shipping of England, France, America and Holland. The share of the United States in this indemnity was about $700,000. A sentiment existed in the United States that this indemnity ought never to have been exacted, and that now at least, when Japan had entered on a career of reform and progress, the indemnity might with the utmost propriety be returned.

An agitation and discussion of the subject was begun, which resulted finally in the return of the indemnity to Japan. I do not misstate matters in the least when I say that Mr Waterbury contributed materially to this generous action. He corresponded and wrote articles for the papers; he distributed information; he urged upon the members of Congress and upon influential public men the wisdom and justice of action — and when action at last came he had a right to feel gratified.

This school, you know, is governed by an Executive committee, of which the Superintendent of Public Instruction is *ex-officio* chairman, and the four other members are appointed by the joint action of the Superintendent of Public Instruction and the regents of the University. Mr Waterbury was appointed a member of the Executive committee in 1881, while Dr Alden was president. Of those who were members of the committee at that time, not one is a member now. Superintendent Gilmour terminated his membership with his term of office; Dr Mosher is dead; General Robert H. Pruyn is dead; Hon. Charles E. Smith has removed from the state; Mr Waterbury is dead, and I have removed from the state.

But while Mr Waterbury held the office no one could have fulfilled the duties with greater fidelity or ability. He gave to the

school the energy and activity which were the inherent constituents of his character. In many directions his advice and aid were of the utmost value to the school. Dr Alden, who was then president, looked to him in a special manner for sympathy and assistance. His own graduation from the school in its early days gave him a peculiar knowledge of its wants and purposes and a familiarity with traditions and methods, which none of the others of the Executive committee could claim. During the year in which he served as a member, before he became president, I do not hesitate to say that he performed as important a work as has ever been performed by any of the men who have held this position.

When Dr Alden in the spring of 1882 resigned the office of president, which he had held for 15 years, there was no hesitation in offering it to Mr Waterbury. I do not know whether he experienced any hesitation in accepting the position. He knew very well the hardships of the place, and how much of personal ease any man who looks for success in this work must sacrifice, and how largely he must give himself up to the care and management of such a school. His practical and personal acquaintance with the school during its formative period, his familiarity with its affairs derived from his active membership of the Executive committee, his experience in the organization and management of educational institutions elsewhere, all rendered him exceptionally qualified to undertake the presidency.

I need not say how fully he met the expectations of his appointment. You know how energetically he entered upon his duties, and how well he continued to perform them even down to the last of his life. As was necessary in so large and multiform an establishment, he gave much of his time and ability to the administration of its affairs. He introduced many reforms into its methods, and supervised with great assiduity the departments of instruction and the methods of training teachers, for which the school was originally established.

For a long time it had become evident that the building on Lodge street, which it had occupied since 1849, was entirely inadequate for its purpose, and ought not longer to be occupied. It was determined, therefore, by the Executive committee to ask the legislature for means to build a suitable permanent Normal School building and to make it worthy of the state and the cause to

which it was to be devoted. Fortunately at this time, the senator from this district, Hon. Abraham Lansing, appreciated fully the object to be attained and lent the powerful aid of his advocacy to the enterprise. Senator Jones, from Catskill, also gave special and valuable aid to the enterprise, and Governor Cleveland, who then occupied the gubernatorial chair, appreciated fully the necessity of prompt and decisive action. The legislature made the appropriation and placed in the hands of the Executive committee the means to procure a site and to erect a building.

How well this task was fulfilled you are able to decide. This beautiful building on this superb site is the result of their efforts. But I should not rightly do my duty by our deceased president, did I not tell you that in a special manner and to an unusual degree the present result was due to him. He was placed on the Building committee with Superintendent Ruggles and Mr Robert L. Fryer, and he gave the entire time which he could spare from his duties as the president of the school, to the planning and supervision of this building. It was said many years ago, when St Peter's church was built in the beautiful manner in which we now see it, old Dr Philip Ten Eyck, still living, who was on the Building committee, saw every brick handled and was able to certify to its being well and truly laid. In almost an equal degree, it may be said that President Waterbury watched the laying of every brick in this structure and could certify that in all its appointments it is suited to the great purposes for which it was designed.

It was a notable event in the history of this school when it removed from the old building to this new and elegant home. I know with what pride President Waterbury regarded this step. In his estimation this was a fit consummation of the many years of faithful labor and of the legitimate growth and progress of normal education in its oldest organized school in this state. To him this was not merely a matter of personal satisfaction, but it gave opportunity for the introduction of new features, and for the improvement of the methods that had been in practice for many years.

To those who were at all familiar with the Normal School it was plain that from the time of this removal a great change was noticeable in the methods of administration and training.

A kindergarten was for the first time established, the object of which was to train those who had an aptitude for it in the methods of employing the energies and educating the faculties of little children. We all know how important an addition this has proved to be to the power and usefulness of this school.

The model school was provided with better accommodations and made a much more useful and effective instrument for the training of the student in the methods of teaching.

The teaching of natural science was established on a rational basis and an opportunity was provided for every student to learn practically not only how to perform the experiments which are needed in teaching science, but also to prepare in the simplest and least expensive ways the apparatus which may be required.

Provision was also made for a reference library where the students of the school should have at hand the books which might aid them in the investigation of those subjects that they were required to study. I know that his plan in this regard was not at once carried out, and I am not sure that it has yet been fully realized; but it was from the beginning one of President Waterbury's definite projects, and the designation of an important and prominent room of the building for a reference library is evidence of his earnest and decided purpose.

Even in this large building there is not yet space for appropriate rooms for a gymnasium. It has been, therefore, a long-conceived plan of Dr Waterbury to secure an additional building to contain the necessary apparatus, not only for exercising the students in the drill needful for their personal health and strength, but also the means by which they may be taught the methods of training their own future pupils in appropriate gymnastic exercises.

I would do an injustice which I have no intention of doing, and which President Waterbury would be the last to wish, were I to omit to say that in all these improvements he was zealously aided and seconded by the teachers of this school. It has been a subject of congratulation, both with the president and the Executive committee, that the teachers have been so profoundly loyal to the school and so faithful and thoughtful in the discharge of the duties confided to them. If this school has accomplished, in any degree, the purposes for which it was originally established; if it has

contributed in any measure to the advancement of education in this great state, its success must be credited to the noble men and women who have served here as teachers. Not to speak of those who are now in active service, it is a matter of pride and gratification to name as the laborers in this field, David P. Page, the first president and founder of its continued success; George R. Perkins, the distinguished mathematician and president; Samuel B. Woolworth, the veteran educator; David B. Cochran, the brilliant scientist and scholar; Joseph Alden, the well-equipped and experienced writer and teacher.

In making an estimate of Dr Waterbury's character and ability we must remember that from his early years he was an orphan and was obliged to struggle up to his latest and best achievements without the sympathy and assistance of either mother or father. He had, it is true, the inherited instincts of scholarship and organization, derived from a father who held these things in high estimation and was himself a notable example of their highest development. From his mother too and his mother's family he inherited those qualities of benevolence and activity which he exhibited in so high a degree. He possessed, however, in the kindness and devotion of those to whose care he was left, the best substitutes for that of which he had been deprived. I know well the gratitude he felt for the dear uncle and aunt, who took him and his brothers and sister to their own childless home and acted to them the part of father and mother.

Dr Waterbury was a practical and administrative man; and it was in the management of important concerns that he was most successful. In the public school at Hudson, in the boys' Academy, in his life insurance business, and particularly in the care of this institution of learning, he was pre-eminently a man qualified by talents and character to direct and plan. He knew how to get from subordinates their best work and to devise ways in which the combined work of many hands might tend to help forward a well-considered end. Although not a profound scholar, as successful administrative men generally are not, he was one of the best teachers in the special branches he undertook, that I have ever known. Many of the old boys in the academy can testify to the thoroughness and perspicacity with which he drilled them in the subjects which he taught. His little book on Life Insurance, I am sure those who have read it will allow, contains the best

statements to be found anywhere of the mathematical principles of that difficult subject.

As a writer Dr Waterbury was both ready and lucid. If he had made journalism a profession, he would have attained easily a great success. I had many occasions to witness the facility and vigor with which he could treat a great subject in which he was interested. But with the exception of the little book on Life Insurance, to which I have already referred, and of the exhaustive history of this school which he compiled, and some papers and addresses on educational subjects which at various times he prepared, I know of no writing of his, outside of the articles which he often and most acceptably issued in the daily press.

But these are not the qualifications which determine our estimate of a man. A great scholar, or writer, or orator, or a great manager and administrator may, after all, be weak and contemptible as a man. We look for integrity, benevolence, manliness and courage in the character of him whom we mark out for our admiration. It was in these moral qualities, which go far beyond purely intellectual ones, in stamping the character of a man, that Dr Waterbury was eminent. While he was in many ways a rarely equipped man, capable of doing a vast amount of work in a thoroughly practical manner, he was in character and moral stamina greater than his work and higher than the highest achievements to which he ever attained. He was an upright, honest man, whom Burns, whose statue stands opposite to us, has pronounced the noblest work of God. He has gone through life as the Hebrew children passed through the burning fiery furnace, without the smell of fire upon him.

He was full of kindness to others, and was constantly seeking for ways in which he might do them good. His own family and his intimate friends can testify to his unfailing exertions in their behalf. The graduates of this school, when about to enter upon their various careers, know how ready and anxious he was to aid them in finding suitable places in which to teach.

In courage and manliness he evinced the best traits of his character. He was not afraid to do his duty. Even when duty lay in unwelcome directions and the doing it involved the opposition and hostility of those who were friends, he did not hesitate but excepted cheerfully and uncomplainingly the results, whatever they might be. He had his own way of looking at things and his

own methods of doing them, and was not unduly concerned at the opinions of others as to his views or his actions.

The profession in which Dr Waterbury spent the greater part of his active life, that of a teacher, is one which calls out the best qualities in a man's character. To educate a human soul, to develop what is good in it and repress what is evil and dangerous, to impart to it the powers and aptitudes of integrity and nobility of character, are surely the highest and greatest ends to which any man can devote his talents. Every good and earnest man must in a certain sense and to a certain degree be a teacher. No one can go through life in any of the professions or occupations without imparting the lessons of his words and actions to those about him. I was deeply impressed only a few days ago by the expressions of a friend who has a family of little children to bring up. He said that there came over him sometimes a terrible sense of responsibility, when he thought of training up these young and inquiring minds. In a large and comprehensive sense the teacher is called upon to do the same thing. He must supplement the imperfect and incorrect education received at home. He must impart the knowledge which will give the greatest help in the future emergencies of life. He must inspire the young soul with a love for learning, so that it will go on for the whole of its life in its career of acquisition. Above all and chiefly he must educate the faculties of the mind so that whatever problem it may be called upon to undertake in the future circumstances of life, it may be prepared to grapple with it fearlessly and successfully.

Such are the tasks Dr Waterbury spent the chief part of his life in performing. It was a noble and worthy life-work. When I look back on what I have often seen, Professor Waterbury employed in teaching a class of clever, wide-awake boys, what a significant and impressive picture is presented to me! How alert he keeps them by his lively and surprising questions! How good-humored and happy they seem under his genial rule! How proud they are over their successes, which he liberally praises! How thoughtful and serious their boyish faces become under his penetrating and incisive talk!

I reverence the work and the character of the clergyman or the physician or the lawyer. The good which the genuine man may do to his fellow-man in these professions is almost beyond estimate. But the service which the true teacher, who puts into his

work all the resources of his mind and all the energies of his character, can render to those who are brought under his influence, seems to me far more important and permanent.

But I must close this prolonged memorial of my friend. I feel as if I were looking on him for the last time. The death of Dr Waterbury was to me, and I suppose to most who hear me, an intense surprise. When I saw him last he seemed to me in his usual robust health. I did not know what I have since been told, that he was already breaking up, and that his life by no means promised a long continuance. He had not by a great deal reached the three score years and ten mentioned by the psalmist as the limit of life. But his work was done, and the places which saw him were to see him no more. To you teachers and to you students who had been in the habit of daily seeing him it must have been a strange thing to come to the opening of this term and of this year without the welcome of your president. These rooms and this assembly hall must have borne a desolate and bereaved look as you came hither to enter again on your accustomed duties. And as you trod through these corridors and up these stairs, they must have given, I am sure, a hollow and saddened sound. To us who saw him chiefly as a member of the Executive committee, and afterward as the president, busy with the affairs of the school or with the building for the school, his departure from his accustomed place will be a sad and notable change. His cheerful and well-considered views of all matters relating to the school, and his unremitting activity in its behalf relieved the members of the committee of much of the anxiety and of much of the labor which they would otherwise have felt they ought to expend upon it. They felt that the institution was safe in the hands of one who was so devoted to its welfare and so experienced in all matters pertaining to its administration.

It is a noteworthy fact that an institution once founded is not easily broken down. Like a tree in the field, it will withstand many storms, and can only be crushed by some terrific hurricane. This Normal School has encountered many misfortunes and losses. It has in its history of 45 years seen many of its honored friends and promoters taken away. Yet it stands to-day in a better condition and a more hopeful attitude than ever before. Even the death of its president, in the very midst of his useful and honored career, cannot shake its steady and onward march.

The work that he has left undone is taken up by new and vigorous hands. Already the Executive committee has filled the vacancy which Dr Waterbury's death created. The new president enters on a field of labor by no means unfamiliar. He has shown, by many years of successful experience, his ability to undertake such a task as is set before him here. He comes from a position where he had no predecessor and has made his own traditions and examples, to a Normal School which has been in existence since 1844, and which has had a succession of presidents of whom any institution might be proud. It is the best that we can wish for him — and of that we are sure — that he may carry on the good work which they initiated in their spirit and with the same success as they in their time achieved.

The usefulness of a Normal School is far-reaching and widespread. It multiplies itself by the numbers graduated, and stretches out as far as they or their influence can extend. One good and efficient man or woman — and this school has sent out many such — is capable of spreading the influence of the instruction and the training here given through many minds. The honest and genuine work which Dr Waterbury did not only in this Normal School, but in the other fields of labor where he was called to work, has in this way been multiplied many times.

It brings a man's life to a noble and exalted conclusion to find in it a prevailing purpose to benefit his fellow-men. What is wealth, position, or influence, without having along with it the higher and better element?

Dr Waterbury's life was successful as men count success; he held positions of honor and trust; he was dignified by those signs which mark successful achievement; he was a well-read man and had made himself familiar with the works of many minds in a great variety of directions. But I place higher than all these acquirements and achievements the simple fact that he was an honest man and did good as he had opportunity.

I mourn over the death of my friend; I mingle my grief with those to whom he was nearest and dearest; I look in vain for others to fill the place to me that he has left. But it is a satisfaction and a pleasure to know that my friend is safely through the perils of this mortal life; that he has been able to use the opportunities, which were offered to him, so wisely and discreetly that all men now may speak well of him and bless him.

JOHN P. GRIFFIN

Ex-Principal of Falley Seminary

Born at Vernon, Oneida co., N. Y., Jan. 7, 1821. Died at Syracuse, N. Y., April 21, 1890

BY H. E. BARRETT, SYRACUSE, N. Y.

Since the subject of this sketch has not for several years been closely connected with educational labors, there are, undoubtedly, many of the younger members of this Convocation that did not know him, but to those who were serving the state 25 years ago, the name of John P. Griffin was very familiar.

The securing of an education was to him a struggle with poverty, as without help he made a successful preparation for collegiate life at Fairfield Seminary and received university honors at Wesleyan. Immediately after graduation he was engaged as teacher of mathematics and natural science in Fairfield Seminary. Of that institution he was principal from 1850 to 1853. During the years from 1853 to 1856, he was connected with Bloomfield Institute, N. J. In 1856 Falley Seminary at Fulton, N. Y., came into his control by purchase and the succeeding 14 years marked, in Professor Griffin's own estimation at least, the period of his life work. After 1870 he was registrar of Syracuse University for a number of years, which position he resigned to become business manager of the Northern Christian Advocate. His services upon this paper were continued until a week of his death. The business life of this esteemed gentleman was marked by the success always attendant upon a close attention to the details. Everything under his charge was carefully systematized and nothing was lost sight of.

Of his labors in Falley Seminary, volumes might be written but we must be content with a few words. Professor Griffin brought experience, energy, persistency and a strong faith in the possibilities to this position. These elements united with his pains-taking care of all the minutiæ, his ability as a scholar and organizer and to the inspiration of a noble purpose placed the seminary in the front rank of institutions for secondary education. At a recent re-union of the students of the institution the following sentiment was uttered: "Professor Griffin felt it as much his duty to teach his scholars the way of eternal life as he did to

instruct them in Latin or algebra." This is the key which lays open to the world the hidden recesses of his thoughts and reveals the strong Christian character of the man and the true spirit of his teaching.

There are hundreds of men and women to-day scattered over this fair land, who have occasion to call the time blessed which they passed under the guiding influence of Professor Griffin.

Winning the confidence and respect of all the students, he was large-hearted as he was intelligent, an ideal self-made man, whose only purpose in life was to do good as he had opportunity; aiming always to do the right thing; never disciplining a pupil except in love and only, thereby, seeking the pupil's greater good. The thousands whom he trained to become useful men in life, teachers of others, men filling influential positions in pulpit, law, medicine, literature and business, — women grounded in virtue and character thoroughly qualified by training of the intellect and sensibilities for the larger opportunities of usefulness that are everywhere opening to women — these all in turn are molding the thought and character of other communities to the ideal standard which Professor Griffin so conscientiously held up at Falley Seminary. Thus the mighty influences for good of one true man are multiplied over and over again.

What monument to the memory of an inspired teacher could be richer or more enduring than the tender thought of remembrance and the ever increasing influence of good wrought out in a true life?

HENRY A. GAYLORD

Principal of Belleville Union Academy

BY SUP'T G. F. SAWYER, CARTHAGE UNION FREE SCHOOL

Henry A. Gaylord was born in the town of Jefferson, Schoharie co., July 10, 1845 and died at Belleville, Jefferson co., March 11, 1890. He was the second son of Harry N. and Phœbe E. (Smith) Gaylord, and spent his childhood and early youth on his father's farm. He was of good family. His great grandfather was an officer in the revolutionary war, holding commissions signed, one by Jonathan Trumbull, commander-in-chief of the Connecticut forces, and another by John Hancock, president of the colonial congress. His grandfather was also an officer in the war of 1812. His father was one of the substantial men of the town in which he lived; one of those men to whose

wise instincts and candid judgment people instinctively turn in times of doubt. His mother was a woman of much dignity and sweetness of character, and much of Mr Gaylord's earnestness and determination to obtain an education was doubtless due to her influence.

He early evinced a desire for learning, and at a suitable age was taken from the district school and placed, first in Stamford academy during the winter terms, to which he walked every day a distance of two or three miles, and afterwards in the academy at Cooperstown, where, in 1868, he completed his preparatory studies and entered Amherst College at the age of 23. After spending two years in college he taught a year at Shrewsbury, Mass., but kept up his studies, passed his examinations at the end of the year, and graduated with good standing in his class in 1872.

Upon leaving college he entered at once upon his chosen profession, that of teaching, a calling for which his temperament and peculiar cast of mind eminently fitted him. After teaching a year at New Paltz, he accepted the position of first assistant in Union Academy of Belleville, N. Y., a position which he filled with great acceptability for five years. During this time the writer was intimately associated with him, and found him possessed to an unusual degree, not only of those characteristics which made him a successful teacher, but of those sterling qualities of manhood and worth that have made his life a blessing to all who have ever known him. Rarely has it been my lot to meet one whose every day teaching and every day life were so helpful to the pupils as his. Accurate and painstaking to the last degree as a teacher, faithful, conscientious and earnest, in all he did, he succeeded in arousing in the young people under his care, the better sentiment and motives, and the higher aspirations to a nobler life. With an active interest in the moral and religious, as well as the intellectual welfare of his pupils, they always found him a wise counselor and a true and faithful friend.

In Feb. 1879, Mr Gaylord was suddenly summoned to the bedside of his dying mother whom he loved with the strongest and tenderest ties of filial affection. He arrived in time to receive only from the lips of others her last message consigning to his care the declining years of his father. With a promptness that always characterized his response to the call of duty he left his school work and returned to that of the farm.

Twice after this, once in 1880 and again in 1883 he was called to fill a vacancy in the principalship of union academy of Belleville and at the beginning of the school year 1885 he was regularly employed as principal of that school, a position which he filled up to the time of his death with great acceptability to all interested in the school. Thus it will be seen that almost all his work as a teacher was done in this one institution, where he held a large place in the hearts of all who knew him. At his funeral pupils and people were in mourning. Rarely does an entire community show such real grief or so full an appreciation of true worth.

GEORGE HAMMEL COOK

State Geologist of New Jersey

BY JOHN C. SMOCK, ECONOMIC GEOLOGIST, NEW YORK STATE MUSEUM

George Hammel Cook was born at Hanover, Morris county, N. J., January 5, 1818. On his father's side he was descended from a family which, emigrating from England, settled in Massachusetts in the early part of the seventeenth century, and came thence to New Jersey among the first settlers in that part of Morris county. His early education was obtained in a country school in his native town, and he was for a short time a teacher in the same town, thus beginning his long career as a successful educator while still a boy of school age. In 1836 he was engaged as a civil engineer, in making surveys for and locating the line of the Morris and Essex railroad, between Newark and Morristown, and its extension to the Delaware river. Appreciating the advantages of a thorough education, and seeking a wider field of usefulness, he entered the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, at Troy, in 1838, and was graduated from that school in 1839. In that institution he heard the lectures of Amos Eaton, the famous teacher, from whom so many of our older scientists caught their inspiration and love for the natural sciences, and made the acquaintance of fellow-students who were his life-long friends. After graduation he was employed first as a tutor, and afterwards as adjunct professor in the institute. In 1842 he became senior professor, giving instruction in the natural sciences. Here he remained until 1846, attracting students and enlisting the support of influential and wealthy friends in behalf of his Alma Mater, and throughout all the years of his busy life he showed the same

steady interest in its prosperity. In 1846 he removed to Albany, and was for a short time engaged in manufacturing business. He was called to the chair of mathematics and natural philosophy in the Albany Academy in 1848, and was appointed principal of that institution in 1851, succeeding Rev. Dr Campbell, who had been associated with him in its faculty. His success as a teacher and in the administration is recalled by many students who were graduated while he was connected with the academy. While in Albany he was chemist of the Onondaga Salt Springs, and in 1852 made his first visit to Europe for the purpose of studying the salt manufacture of England and France. In 1853, in response to a call from Rutgers College, he returned to his native state, and accepted the professorship of chemistry and the natural sciences. The first class graduated under his instruction was that of 1854. For 13 years he taught botany, mineralogy, chemistry and geology, giving all the lectures upon the natural sciences which were embraced in the college course of that period. He started the Natural History Society of the college, and aroused the enthusiasm of his students and scientific friends in collecting material for a museum. In this way the foundations of a college museum were laid, and its collections grew rapidly in value and in use for illustration in the class-room, through his untiring efforts and the aid of friends, whom he enlisted in its support.

Dr Cook's work in the geological survey of New Jersey was begun in 1854, in which year he was appointed assistant state geologist, in charge of the survey of the southern part of the state, and associated with Dr William Kitchell, state geologist, and alumnus of Rutgers College. The work was suspended in 1856.

The subject of a better education for the farmer and the claims of agriculture upon science pressed upon him, and it was due largely to his patient and persevering efforts, and his wide influence among practical men, that the Morrill bill, creating and endowing colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts in the several states, was passed in 1864. Rutgers Scientific School had been organized in 1863. In 1865 it became, by legislative enactment, the state college, and received the endowment from the general government. This success was through his earnest appeals in behalf of the scientific training of the industrial classes and the advantages

which were to be had at New Brunswick. The increase in the teaching force, necessitated by the new foundation, afforded him some relief and help in the teaching of the natural sciences, but added that of agriculture, and his chair became, in 1867, that of chemistry, natural history and agriculture. Although the field of natural science was in part covered by additional professorships, his labors in behalf of the varied interests of the college and the newly-founded scientific school were increased rather than lessened, and absorbed the larger part of his time and energies. He had been elected vice-president in 1864, which office he held to the end of his life — a quarter of a century. The promotion of agriculture was ever a favorite subject, and in 1880 his efforts were successful in the establishment of the New Jersey Agricultural Experiment Station, in connection with the state college at New Brunswick. He became its director. The same year his chair was changed to that of geology and agriculture, which was held by him at the time of his death.

The geological survey of the state was resumed in 1864, and under his direction as the state geologist. This office also was held by him during the rest of his life, and its wise direction, prudent management and economic results to the state are shown by the unanimity of legislative action continuing the work, and by the development of the natural resources of the state through the information given to the people in the various reports. Amid the multiplicity of his labors in advancing the interests of agriculture and geological science he was ever mindful of Rutgers, and his acquaintance attracted students from all parts of the state to her classes. His loyalty was remarkable — unsurpassed by that of any of her own graduates. And as life was nearing its end he rejoiced in seeing New Jersey Hall completed and equipped for scientific investigations, and the teaching of the natural sciences related to agriculture. Of his work in connection with agriculture, it can be said that no other state experiment station has such a hold upon the farmers, or reaches so large a constituency.

Dr Cook was honored by membership in many societies — the American Philosophical Society, the Academy of Natural Sciences in Philadelphia, the American Institute of Mining Engineer's, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, the National Academy of Science, and the International Geologi-

cal Congress. He gave the presidential address in the section of geology and geography at the Cleveland meeting of the American Association, and was the reporter on the mesozoic for the American committee of the International Geological Congress. He received the degree of Ph. D. from the University of New York in 1856, and that of LL. D. from Union College in 1865.

Dr Cook was pre-eminently a student of nature rather than of books. He was a keen and thoughtful observer of natural phenomena, and collected facts with diligence and care. He was not confused by their multitude or variety, for his power of generalization was great, and he sought ever their orderly classification and the discovery of new laws of occurrence. A working hypothesis was always in mind, and to it were brought the accumulated data for temporary keeping. His fertility in resources was another remarkable faculty, and in the field and in the class-room lack of equipment was often more than filled out by his command of materials at hand, and their use in the illustration of scientific principles. He drew upon the shop and the factory of the city, and the plants and rocks of the adjacent fields and hills for these material aids, and in this way wedded science to practice in his college work.

In teaching, his method was inductive rather than deductive, and he had the student observe, then draw inferences, thus leading to habits of careful observation, correct reasoning and stimulating to original investigation, and adding interest to the ordinary work of the class-room. He was not the strict disciplinarian, but the loving teacher who read the world of nature devoutly as a divine revelation, and his aim was to make students useful men, who could help their fellows in the way of life.

DR WILLIAM MATHER

Ex-Professor in Madison University

BY PRIN. D. D. WARNE

From the Little Falls Journal and Courier, July 1, 1890

The sudden death on Thursday of Fairfield's esteemed and accomplished citizen, Dr William Mather, came with great surprise to the people of Herkimer county and especially to his more intimate friends who had considered him in remarkably good health for a man of his years. He had been doing some work about his home and it is believed, became over-exhausted. His

physician, Dr Nichols, of Fairfield, who was with him in his last moments, believed that his death was caused by the rupture of a blood vessel in the region of the heart.

Dr William Mather was born on Barto Hill, one mile from the village of Fairfield, April 28, 1802. He was a direct descendant in the eighth generation of John and Ellen Mather, who lived at Lowton, Lancashire county, England, near Liverpool. Richard Mather, the grandson of John and the son of Thomas Mather, preached at Toxteth Chapel in Liverpool, and came to Boston in 1635. From this origin nearly all of the Mather name in this country have come. He was married May 24, 1836, to Miss Mary A. Buell, whom he survived 16 years. He is survived by three children, Wm. A. Mather of Fairfield, Mrs Albert B. Watkins of Albany, and Alonzo C. Mather of Chicago, and five grand-children.

As a boy, Dr Mather was of a thoughtful, studious disposition and early developed a marked taste for scientific pursuits. He entered Fairfield Academy at the age of 14 and continued a member of the school during several years. Even at this age he had done much original work and early gave promise of the scientific attainments which in after years were to make him a valued educator in his special field of work. He afterwards took a full course of study in the College of Physicians and Surgeons of the Western District, distinguishing himself especially in the study of chemistry, and graduated in 1826. He never, however, practiced the profession of medicine, giving as a reason that he could not bear to witness pain and suffering. He preferred, in his modest way, the more quiet life of student and teacher, both noble callings and for both of which nature had well fitted him. In 1827 at the suggestion of Dr John A. Kinnecut, of Buffalo, who during the preceding year, as a resident graduate had taught a class in chemistry, Dr Mather formed a class for private examination in the Medical College and for many years continued his connection with the Medical College. In 1828 he was invited to give a course of lectures to the academic and theological students at Hamilton, and continued to visit Hamilton for this purpose each year until 1838, when he was appointed professor of chemistry in Madison University, now Colgate. From a letter written October 13, 1851, by Stephen W. Taylor, we learn the conditions of the contract. Dr Mather consented to give instruction to the students of the University for an indefinite term of years, pro-

vide and keep in repair his own chemical apparatus and remove his cabinet of minerals, fossils and geological specimens from Fairfield to Madison University; in consideration of which he was to receive $350 per year if he remained five years and eventually donated his cabinet to the University; otherwise he was to receive $300 per year from the beginning. His chemical apparatus at this time was valued at $1,000 and his cabinet at $500. To Dr Mather the Colgate University of to-day owes much of its well-appointed laboratory, and still more to the interest which he aroused and successfully maintained in its scientific departments. This position he filled with great success, adding to his lectures on chemistry instruction in geology, until 1867. In 1841 he received an invitation to accept the professorship of chemistry and pharmacy in the Medical College at Castleton, Vermont, where he gave courses of lectures for several successive years.

The study of natural sciences, especially chemistry, was in its infancy during these years, and instruction was given very rarely except in large schools and the more progressive colleges. The system of lecturing upon scientific subjects throughout the state, in the different places where an interest in them had begun to arise, was entered upon with great zeal by a few pioneers in this branch of learning. Prominent among these pioneer lecturers, including such men as Prof. John W. Hatch, Dr Austin Flint, Dr J. M. Wieting, Prof. Mandeville, Prof. Silliman (the older), Dr Hitchcock and a few others, we find Dr Mather, whose subject and specialty was chemistry.

From 1828 to 1860, during such parts of the year as he could spare from his regular duties at Hamilton, he gave courses of lectures in nearly all the larger towns of the state, notably Buffalo, Albany, Rochester, Oxford, Auburn, Ithaca, Geneseo, Avon, Syracuse, Whitesboro, Galway, Saratoga Springs, Lansingburgh, Lyons, Rome, Amsterdam, Herkimer, Troy, Waterford, Utica, Little Falls, Cooperstown, Fort Plain, Schoharie, Hudson, Kingston, Newport, Owego, Binghamton, Bath, Elmira, Penn Yan, Palmyra, Seneca Falls, Waterloo, Norwich, Fulton, Pulaski, Oswego, Waterville, Clinton, Sing Sing, Peekskill, Adams, Oneida, and many other places, including also courses of lectures at the Albany State Normal School and the Young Men's Association of Albany, and the Berkshire Medical College at Pittsfield, Massachusetts.

He was a learned and instructive lecturer. As his lectures were illustrated with an ample apparatus and he was a skillful manipulator, his experiments were invariably successful. To show the very high value placed upon Dr Mather as a scientific lecturer, we quote very briefly a few extracts from press notices of years ago:

Peekskill Republican, Feb. 25, 1851: "We congratulate the lovers of science among us on the prospects of a course of lectures on chemistry by the intelligent and experienced lecturer, Dr Wm. Mather."

"Fulton Patriot," Sept. 16, 1847, extracts from copy of resolutions presented to Dr Wm. Mather: Resolved, That in the lectures just closed, Dr Mather has shown himself an eminently successful experimenter and a thorough master of the principles and details of the science which he teaches. Resolved, That we feel confident in saying to schools and colleges and the public, generally, wherever Dr Mather may lecture, that they will receive an ample equivalent in the solid, interesting and useful instruction which he imparts. Dr Mather displays no badges of the empyric. He is a plain, interesting and instructive lecturer. He has devoted years of arduous labor to the science of chemistry, and shows a perfect familiarity with his subject. He blends with illustrations that simplicity peculiar to elementary demonstration, while he leads along the mind to comprehend the complicated results of the chemical combinations of elementary principles."

As an author he wrote no extended work, but his pen had been active in various directions, for many years, and his contributions to local and scientific periodicals, were numerous and valuable. Perhaps no other man was so well versed in the early history of this section, especially with reference to its pioneers and the rise and progress of its educational institutions. His memory was remarkably vivid, enabling him to recall with great accuracy and fullness, the incidents which came to his personal knowledge from his earliest years as a resident of the town. His assistance to Mr Benton in the preparation of the History of Herkimer County, was invaluable; and many pages of that work were written entirely by Dr Mather, and for which he did not receive the credit which justly belonged to him. His series of articles on the origin of Fairfield Seminary, and later on, a similar series on the History, Work and Influence of the Medical College, were extensively read and widely copied. Only recently, a paper prepared by him on

the Fairfield Medical College, was read before the Utica Historical Society, by a prominent physician of that city, and received high praise. For months previous to his death he was engaged in collecting material and preparing manuscript for the forthcoming History of Fairfield Seminary. His memory was remarkable, especially with reference to events which happened in his youth or early manhood. He took much interest in the genealogy of the early settlers of Fairfield and vicinity, and spent much time in tracing out lines of descent in answer to questions sent to him from people now widely scattered.

He gave valuable assistance in the preparation of biographies of Dr Asa Gray, Dr Hadley, and many others whom he knew, either as fellow students, or with whom he labored in after life, as an educator. His penmanship, in the style of half a century ago, was remarkable for its neatness and clearness, and resembled copper plate, and the notes which he took only last Monday, as secretary of the Medical College board, which annually meets at Little Falls, are an exact counterpart in style and penmanship to those taken by him in the same capacity when he was first elected secretary, in 1840.

No man among the hundreds of distinguished alumni of "old Fairfield," took greater interest in his *alma mater* than Dr Mather. From his early youth he had an intimate acquaintance with all its inner and outer workings. He took special pains to become acquainted with all its teachers, and was ever ready with his kind encouragement and offers of advice and assistance. When a new teacher was about to commence his duties in the department of physical science, it was his custom to aid him in his first use of the apparatus, and frequently to assist him in his experiments, and the writer of this article will ever hold him in grateful remembrance for much information and help in that department.

So solicitous was he for the prosperity of the school, that he always endeavored to keep in his mind the exact number of students present, and often at the beginning of each term, would watch the number of lights in the buildings during the first few evenings, in order that he might judge of the prospects of a successful term, anxiously commenting to those whom he met upon the favorable or unfavorable indications. While he was president of the board of trustees, he took great interest in the regents' examinations. He would perform the tiresome duty of

a committeeman, and look over the answer papers, and was always regarded by the students as a very pleasant and efficient guardian of the regents' interests.

In prosperity and adversity the school has found him the same unvarying champion, always ready to work, to contribute funds and speak for its interests. The teachers have found him a friend and co-worker in the cause of education, and the students a man abounding in knowledge which he always was willing to impart.

He had been a trustee of the school since 1853; president of the board for about 20 years, and was a prompt and regular attendant at all the meetings, and an active participant in all discussions relating to its financial and educational matters.

When, a few years ago, the indications were that the seminary was about to close, when many people feared that "old Fairfield" had done its work and must henceforward be counted among the institutions of the past, Dr Mather, with earnest solicitude and zeal, labored to bring about the change in management which promised, and has resulted in, the successful and permanent establishment of the school; and he lived to rejoice in the well filled rooms, and numerous lights that gleamed from the windows opposite his residence.

He was also an earnest worker in the Protestant Episcopal church, of which he was for many years a vestryman. He was always attentive to every duty, taking, as he did in every good work, an active interest in all church affairs; and it was often remarked by those who knew him best, that few men ever lived a more genuine, practical, Christian life, than Dr Mather.

He was a man of perfect honesty, remarkable in his habits of punctuality in all duties, of strict accuracy and system in the execution and record of all business transactions, and of marked kindness of heart. He was ever careful and considerate of the feelings and circumstances of all around him, and the universal testimony of his neighbors and those with whom he came into the most constant personal contact, shows him to have been a man of unusually broad views and benevolent character. In his latter years he was somewhat afflicted with deafness, but did not lose his deep interest in all current affairs. He read constantly and carefully, and kept well informed on public questions of the day. He was public spirited, and contributed freely of his time and means in support of local projects. He retained to the end of his

life, the mental faculties of a remarkably well balanced and even brilliant mind. He has passed away in the fullness of years, esteemed and lamented by the entire community.

His funeral was largely attended on Sunday afternoon at 2 o'clock, from Trinity church in Fairfield, Rev. W. H. Lylburn officiating.

PROF. ABBY MOORE GOODWIN

BY MARY W. WHITNEY

Abby Moore Goodwin, professor of Latin in Vassar College, died at Poughkeepsie April 23, 1890.

Prof. Goodwin was born in Georgetown, Mass., on Jan. 30, 1847. Her early education was acquired in the schools of Newburyport, to which city her parents had removed while she was quite young. In her girlhood she displayed that love of study which marked her through life, and her unusual gifts as a teacher received early development through her devotion to the education of her young brother.

After graduating from the Newburyport high school she entered the normal school of Salem, Mass., and there she completed all the courses offered, including an advanced course of one year. She maintained throughout her school life an exceptionally high rank in her classes.

Upon leaving Salem she received a call to the high school of Fall River, Mass., as teacher of mathematics and French, and during the three years of her stay in this city, she had acquired such a reputation for excellence in teaching that she was summoned at the close of that period to Vassar College, which had then been open to the public some eight years. She entered the language department and became teacher of Latin and Greek. While in Fall River she had been an eager student and reader as well as teacher, and never did she cease to aspire to higher acquirement and a more advanced field of instruction. In 1879 she spent three months in Cambridge, England, in the study of Greek. She took the degrees of B. A. and M. A. at Vassar College upon full and complete examinations. She continued instructor in Latin and Greek until 1886, when she was made associate professor of Latin, and in 1889 she was raised to the rank of professor. In July 1889 she went to Leipsic for the study of German preparatory to attending lectures in the German univer-

sities upon Latin and kindred subjects. Having acquired sufficient familiarity with German for this purpose she attended lectures in the University of Leipsic and later in that of Zürich. During this year abroad she spent some time in Rome, not as a tourist but as a student. She had previously met Professor Lanciani during his lecture tour in America, and her acquaintance with him gave her great advantages in the study of archæology at Rome.

From this fruitful year of study in Europe she returned to her post at Vassar College with renewed ardor, and still higher ideals of work. Early in the winter she fell ill of a slow fever. When apparently about to recover from this illness, she was seized upon by the fatal disease which caused her death.

Prof. Goodwin was an ardent student and a devoted teacher. Her ambition as a scholar was of a high order. She desired to advance continually, to hold completely and to assimilate into daily life and thought the results of reading and study. After entering the classical department of Vassar College, her studies were mainly in the direction of her teaching, but her reading was always general and her interest in literature and science and in the affairs of the day was intelligent and active. As a teacher she possessed the worthiest qualities. She was thorough in her methods, she accepted no sham work, no half-hearted work. But with genuine effort she was sympathetic and patient however imperfect the product. She was enthusiastic and suggestive, conveying her own stimulating ambition to her students. She was keen in analysis, and evinced unusual power in putting the truth before her classes with clearness, precision and force. Her influence as a teacher rested largely on her own elevated character, as it always must.

Vassar College has lost in Professor Goodwin a most valuable and efficient member of its teaching and governing force. Her views upon education were progressive. She was firm in her convictions and wise and judicious in the expression of them. She was devoted to the college and loyal to its welfare in the broadest sense. Her interest in her own department never blinded her to the best good of the college as a whole.

Her social and religious influence was also a constantly ennobling power. The 17 years of her life at Vassar College will bear their fairest fruit in the never failing results of character as impressed by her upon the young women about her.

PROF. ADELE ROCH, PH. D.

Professor in Rutgers Female College, New York City

Died Tuesday, June 3, 1890, Madame Adèle Roch. A descendant of the Bland family, French Huguenots, who at the revocation of the Edict of Nantes removed to Geneva, Switzerland; born March 2, 1833; educated first in the most advanced school of her native city, then at Turin, the capital of Sardinia, where she became intimate in the family of the king, Carlo Alberto, and especially with his son, Vittorio Emanuele, first king of united Italy; the Italian language was made, as her native French, vernacular. After the establishment of Italian unity, Madame Roch wrote a historic memorial, for which she received the thanks of the king.

Returning to and marrying at Geneva, in 1854, about 1860 Madame Roch, the health of her husband failing, opened a school of advanced culture for young ladies; having among her pupils daughters of Admiral Panfiloff, of the Russian Navy, and of Commodore Steadman, of the U. S. Navy.

At the death of her husband, in 1868, Madame Roch came to the United States, and opened a school of advanced female culture at Columbus, Ga., and afterwards at Atlanta, Ga. About 1874 she became professor of the French language and literature at Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y. In 1877 she removed to New York, and opened a school on Madison avenue, near Sixtieth street, which for about six years maintained a high order of intellectual and moral culture. Failing health led her to devote herself to literary work, specially in connection with Harper's Bazaar. In 1887 she became professor of Modern literature and art at Rutgers Female College. The degree of Ph. D., on thesis presented, was conferred at the annual commencement of that college, June 1889.

CONVOCATION ORDINANCES

1. The University Convocation of the State of New York shall be held annually at the capitol in Albany on the first Wednesday, Thursday and Friday after July fourth.

2. Its object shall be, by addresses, papers, discussions and resolutions to ascertain and formulate educational opinion; to make such recommendations as experience may suggest; and by the cooperation of all the institutions of the University to advance the cause of academic and higher education.

3. The membership of the Convocation shall embrace:

a. The regents and all officers of any department of the University.

b. All trustees, instructors and other officers, in colleges, normal schools, academies, high schools and other institutions of the University.

c. The officers of the New York State Teachers' Association.

d. Such others as may be elected by the regents or by Convocation council.

4. The officers of the University shall be the permanent officers of the Convocation.

5. Each Convocation shall choose a council of five to act as its representative during the year, and to arrange for and conduct the business of the next annual meeting. The secretaries of the University shall be *ex-officio* members and secretaries of this council.

6. The Chancellor shall annually appoint a Necrology committee to collect notices and report to the next Convocation on members or other prominent educators deceased during the year.

7. Each Convocation shall choose an Examinations council of five to confer with the examinations department, to study the workings of the entire system of regents' examinations during the year, and to report to the next Convocation.

8. The proceedings of the Convocation, with the papers and discussions, shall be included in the annual report of the regents to the legislature.

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OF THE

28th University Convocation of the State of New York

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Catskill Grammar schools — Charles Hale
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Fulton Academy — Prin. B. G. Clapp
Gilbertsville Academy — Prin. S. D. Arms
Glens Falls Academy — Prin. Daniel C. Farr; Charles L. Williams
Glens Falls Union School — Prin. Sherman Williams
Gloversville High School — Prin. James A. Estee; Preceptress, Metta L. Persons
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Greenwich Union School — Prin. C. L. Morey
Hamburg Union School — Prin. Andrew Spencer

Hammondsport Union School — Prin. E. E. Cates
Hancock Union School — Prin. Lincoln R. Long
Herkimer Union School — Sup't A. G. Miller
Hogansburg Academy — Prin. M. S. McGarr; Mary A. Carlisle
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